

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 8, 1881.

The Week.

THE most important topics discussed in the President's message are the civil service, our South American relations, and the silver question. With regard to the first, he "urgently recommends" that an annual appropriation be made by Congress to carry out the existing provisions of the law (§ 1753, U. S. R. S.) authorizing the President to prescribe regulations for the admission of persons into the service, and to "employ suitable persons" to conduct inquiries into the fitness of applicants. With regard to competitive examinations, which he refers to as the "principal feature" of the measure urged upon Congress and the Executive, he suggests that the chief argument in its favor is the success of the British civil-service system, which is based upon it. A life-tenure of office, however, which may be considered an essential part of the English plan, the limitation of the maximum age of admission, and retiring allowances, he thinks, are not looked upon with favor in this country. Nevertheless, he says emphatically, "to a statute which should incorporate all its essential features I should feel bound to give my approval." He expresses at the same time serious doubts as to the advisability of doing anything of the kind, and makes objections to each feature of the English system, and suggests that as that system itself was the growth of years, we ought to proceed slowly. As he does not say what he thinks of our past rate of progress, it may be inferred that he means that we ought to proceed "just slowly enough," but not "too slowly." His objections to competitive examinations grow partly out of the usual Stalwart feeling about "mere intellectual attainments," and this explains the suggestion of the submission of "a portion of the nominations" to a central board of examiners selected to test the fitness of applicants without competition. On the whole, this part of the message is very remarkable as being the first serious discussion of the "British civil-service system" by a Stalwart politician. Hitherto the Stalwarts have never been able to refer to it with straight faces, and the fact that their spokesman has stopped laughing at it, and made an explicit announcement that it must be treated as a serious political question, is an encouraging sign of the times.

With regard to the sole guarantee of the Panama Canal, the President insists that the existing Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which provides for a joint guarantee, must be modified, and says that he has "supplemented" the action of the late Administration by proposing to the English Government a modification of the treaty, and "the abrogation of such clauses thereof as do not comport with the obligations of the United States toward Colombia, or with the vital needs of the two friendly parties to the compact"—which is sufficiently

vague to cover almost anything. As to Chili, Bolivia, and Peru, he is entirely non-committal with regard to the instructions given to our representatives, but says that, on account of the "serious misapprehension of the position of the United States" in both countries, he has sent a "special envoy" to each of them, with "general instructions" intended to "bring those powers into friendly relations." The envoy referred to is no doubt Mr. Trescott. He recommends the abolition of all internal taxes except those which fall directly or indirectly on tobacco and spirits, and suggests a commission to revise the tariff. He thinks that perhaps the tax on whiskey might be lowered. He approves the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury that the silver certificates be retired, that the act calling for their issue be repealed, and that the monthly coinage of silver be stopped. He says that he has directed the Star-route cases to be prosecuted with vigor, strongly urges appropriations for the construction of a navy, and among minor matters recommends further legislation against polygamy by requiring the registration of marriages in the Supreme Court of Utah, and the admission of the testimony of wives against their husbands.

The President has sent two Commissioners to Lima and Valparaiso to look into the conduct of Messrs. Hurlbut and Kilpatrick, and explain to them what their instructions really are. One of these, Mr. W. H. Trescott, who goes to Peru, is a trained diplomat. Mr. Walker Blaine, the son of the Secretary of State, goes to Chili. He is a clever young man, who, after a few months' training in the State Department, is probably sent to Chili to give him a little experience in diplomacy and a pleasant foreign trip. Mr. Trescott's mission is the more important of the two. He is accredited to the Hurlbut Government, but whether Hurlbut will recognize him or have anything to do with him remains to be seen. According to the *Herald's* Washington despatches, a gentleman "who is thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the misunderstanding" says that the President merely intends to try by persuasion and argument to get Chili to treat Peru in a lenient and civilized manner; but he adds these significant words:

"Should President Arthur adopt the views which Secretary Blaine has held upon this subject, the Government will take steps to intervene and insist upon Chili releasing Garcia Calderon. Although this course doubtless is a delicate one, it may be necessary to adopt because the United States Minister has already recognized Garcia Calderon, but had not ascertained if his was a government *de facto*. The further difficulty in the adjustment of the affair is that the Chilians, having arrested Garcia Calderon, who really never exercised the functions of a *de facto* Governor of Peru, have now to treat, if they treat at all, with Pierola, he being the only person they can recognize as the head of the Government."

The fact that Calderon is now under arrest in the hands of the Chilians, shows, as they say in "Patience," what a particularly singular kind of a government *de facto* that kind of a *de facto* government would be.

Guiteau appears to have misconceived the theory of Judge Porter's cross-examination of himself on the witness stand. He evidently fancied that it was to be a trial of his wits instead of his lack of wits, and accordingly he made the most of his opportunity, and bent himself to the task of giving the Judge as good as he sent. Whenever he was led up to anything like inconsistency he either sheered off, or fell to blackguarding the Judge, or refused to answer. When, for instance, the Judge asked him if he would have shot President Garfield on July 2 if Mrs. Garfield had been with him, he replied that he would not. Then, pursued the Judge, interrogatively, "it depended entirely on your will?" The prisoner saw the trap and perceived that there was no way to avoid it except by shutting his mouth and refusing to answer; for if it depended entirely upon his will, then the agency of the Deity in the case was eliminated. So he took up a newspaper, adjusted his eye-glasses, and commenced reading, pretending that he had already answered the question more than once, and that it would be a waste of time to answer it again. For one whose sole defence is the plea of insanity he has been much too smart. He has had some little training as a lawyer—just enough to know that in ordinary criminal trials it is best for a prisoner to avoid contradicting himself, but not enough to know that an insane man will contradict himself frequently without being conscious of the fact.

The annual report of the Attorney-General contains very little that is important or new. He calls attention once more to the condition of the Supreme Court docket, which shows an increase of causes undisposed of, and recommends that United States attorneys be paid by salaries in all cases instead of fees. He points out that under the present system the emoluments of the officer depend upon the number, and not upon the importance of the prosecutions undertaken in his district. He adds that "it is believed that all these officers would prefer to be paid entirely by salaries, as not infrequently it is unjustly suggested against them that prosecutions are encouraged for the sake of making fees." The objection to fees might be put on a stronger ground than this. We may sympathize with the sensitiveness of the unjustly suspected district attorney, but this is, after all, a matter of sentiment. He can learn to suffer and be strong, and the Government loses nothing from the unjust suspicion. The serious fact is that the fee system furnishes ground for just suspicion as well. As long as the income of district attorneys depends on the number of cases they bring, some district attorneys will infallibly bring suits for the mere purpose of getting fees, and by this the Government will lose money. It is not merely, therefore, on account of the feelings of the shy, sensitive district attorneys that the system should be broken up.

We have had so much criticism lately of the

manner in which the duties of bank examiners are performed that it is interesting to see what their superior officer, the Comptroller of the Currency, thinks about the matter. The official view is produced in full in his report, which has just been published. What it amounts to is simply this: that the main portion of the work of seeing that the business of the bank is honestly managed must fall upon the directors, and that it is the stockholders, after all, whose duty it is to see that the directors are the kind of men they ought to be; that it is the duty of the examiners to look after the directors rather than the inferior officers of the bank; that it is not possible for the examiners to make anything like a thorough examination of the condition of any bank; that they are not bound to do so unless they "see reason to suspect dishonesty or fraud." In this case, he says, "it is their business to investigate thoroughly, and they should employ experts to assist them in so doing." But here, again, he maintains that it is not possible for them to do what they should do, inasmuch as "the small compensation provided by Congress does not contemplate the yearly auditing of all the accounts of a bank by an examiner, as the pay is entirely inadequate for such work, the amount allowed for the examination of banks of like capital being the same, without reference to the difference in the volume of their business." Unfortunately, "reason to suspect dishonesty or fraud" in the management of a bank seldom or never lies on the surface. It is very seldom indeed that bank examiners can count upon discovering such a reason in doing what the Comptroller says is all that they are ordinarily required to do, namely—ascertaining whether the officers of the bank and its directors are complying with the mere requirements of the law. Perfect bank inspection, such as will completely assure the business public, must consist not simply in finding out whether the accounts of the bank show on their face that the directors and officers are complying with the Act of Congress, but whether the accounts really tally with the facts. The bank is, after all, not a place where books are kept, but a place where money is kept, and the main question is not whether the bookkeeping is good, but whether the money is there. Any system of examination, therefore, which does not ascertain whether the money is there, or which waits to have a suspicion excited by mere discrepancies on the face of the accounts, must necessarily be defective.

The fact is that banking, unlike most other business, has to be conducted on what may be called a basis of suspicion. Every man connected with it, whether borrower or depositor or officer, has to be treated as a person who may possibly fail to do his duty or keep his engagements. The mere requirement of collateral security for every loan is a sign of suspicion. The exaction of bonds from bank officers means suspicion. The existence of Government examiners means suspicion. Banks are examined because there is, as a matter of law as well as of business experience,

standing reason to suspect everybody concerned with its management. A bank conducted without this standing suspicion would soon become a very rotten concern. Every examiner who goes to a bank, therefore, is bound to treat everybody connected with it as legitimately open to suspicion. He has no right to treat any officer's character as raising him above suspicion. If he is not paid enough, or has not time enough to enable him to make a thorough examination, of course he is not to be blamed for not doing so, but such examination as he is able to make should be conducted, as far as it goes, not on the assumption that everybody in the bank is doing his duty, but on the assumption that he is not doing his duty.

The reserve of the New York banks was reduced during the week slightly below the twenty-five per cent. limit, and while the money market was easy enough during the greater part of the week, a sharp stringency was manipulated toward the close. The effort of the Secretary of the Treasury to drive cash out of the Treasury by prepaying called bonds without rebate of interest was only moderately successful, and a call was made for the redemption on January 29 of \$20,000,000 more three and a half per cent. bonds, which it is expected will be prepaid if the present stringency in the loan market continues. The public debt statement shows a reduction last month of \$7,249,126, making \$62,373,471 for the first five months of the fiscal year. The London money market was easy during the week, and the market here for exchange on London became heavy. After several meetings of an informal character, the representatives of the trunk-line railroads failed to arrive at any plan for settling the "war" which has now raged for so many months, the two main points of contention which remain being those which caused the war. The first of these is the demand of Mr. Vanderbilt that the other roads shall abandon New England territory to the New York Central; and the other is that differential rates shall be abolished. The failure of the efforts to make a settlement, and the stringency of the money market, caused a decline in speculative stocks which ranged from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., although there were exceptions to this general course of prices. United States bonds early in the week were strong, but the agitation of new funding schemes caused a lower market for the extended 5's and 6's late in the week. The general domestic trade of the country continues very active. In the foreign trade the tendency is still toward a falling-off of exports and an increase of imports, or toward a reversal of the course of the last few years.

The Tariff Convention got thoroughly tired of "the papers" on Wednesday week. In fact, paper reading broke down early in the day, leaving twelve papers unread. The delegates refused to submit to any more of them, and it was resolved that a representative of each industry should be allowed five minutes to say what it needed in the way of protection—that the delegates, in other words, instead of perorating on the principles of government, should

supply information on the subject which they best understand, the profits of their own trade. There was, however, very little information forthcoming. Every one said that his business needed protection. Some said that they needed more protection than they had, owing to some foreign enemy trying to undersell them. The quinine man, Mr. Jones, fell foul of Mr. J. S. Moore, and asked for a duty on quinine, which he apparently thinks the sick get too cheap. They ignominiously expelled one of their vice-presidents, Mr. Constable, of this city, for desiring a reduction of duties on raw materials, which they evidently consider a nefarious suggestion. Mr. Roach was allowed to read another "paper," or rather have it read, before the resolutions were adopted. These were, as usual, a mass of generalities, praising the tariff, and demanding its revision in the interest of more protection. The chief lesson of the Convention is that nothing short of total prohibition will ever satisfy protectionists as a whole. Nothing else can ever produce "harmony."

The rejection by the Tariff Convention of Mr. William D. Kelley's resolution for the repeal of internal-revenue taxes leaves the country, so far as the Convention can control its destinies, in the harrowing situation of having a probable surplus revenue of one hundred and fifty millions per annum. This surplus, applied to the redemption of the $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bonds, will clear them all out of the way inside of four years and be productive of further evils well known to Mr. Wharton Barker and other publicists of Philadelphia. It is not the least singular of the proceedings of the Convention that the rejection of the Kelley programme regarding internal taxes should have been based not upon financial or business considerations at all, but on dread of the catch-word "free whiskey." The people, it was contended, would never tolerate free liquor. It was rather broadly insinuated, and the suspicion was evidently strong in the minds of the delegates, that "the people" would consider a repeal of the tax on distilled spirits equivalent to making grog absolutely free to all drinkers, so that a man could get drunk for the asking. "Protection" itself having considerable value as a catch-word, the delegates were not so rash as to expose it to needless collision with another catch-word of perhaps equal potency. The Convention finally passed a resolution for the repeal of stamp duties on bank checks, friction matches, and proprietary medicines.

The *Tribune* has apparently fallen into some confusion of mind about the Thugs of India, whom it uses as an illustration in discussing Guiteau's case. It says: "They run amuck, and kill or maim all who come in their way," and "no doubt honestly believe their murderous frenzy to be a religious impulse." Our esteemed contemporary has evidently been mixing up the Thug and the Malay. The Thug does not, and never did, "run amuck." He killed much, but he killed stealthily, deliberately, and with wonderful skill in concealment, and generally, if not always, by strangling. His murders, it is true, were acts of worship of his goddess Kali,

but his worship was sober and calm, and he did not maim people. The Malay who "runs amuck," on the other hand, does so sometimes under a "religious impulse," but oftener under the impulse of bang, and sometimes for the fun of it. The matter is of more importance than it seems, because an illustration is one of the things the whole value of which depends on their correctness. If you use the rose as an illustration, for instance, it must be a real rose, as it exists in nature, and not a rose of your mind; if you use a mule, it must be the true mule of Western and Southern teaming, and not the mule as you would like him to be—sweet and reasonable, and soft in the mouth. And in like manner, your Thug must be the real Thug of Hindostan, and not an imaginary Thug of the Spice Islands.

There is a performance going on in Kansas at this moment which is probably as disgraceful an exhibition of lawlessness as has occurred in any part of the country during the last ten years, and which, if reported from the South, would lead to numerous reflections on the part of the Northern press on the barbarism of that region. A banker has failed at Caldwell, in that State, and, we presume, has failed fraudulently. He was in the custody of the Sheriff under an execution of some sort, in the ordinary course of law, when he was seized by a large mob, who have held him for a week and carried him from place to place—all the time threatening his life unless he turned over to his creditors certain property which he had, or was supposed to have, in his possession. Nor has this been done secretly. The news of the operations of the mob and their negotiations with the prisoner have been telegraphed regularly to all parts of the country by the Associated Press. The State authorities have been in full possession of them from day to day, yet he is still, at this writing, in the hands of his assailants, and, we presume, still liable to be hanged unless he has satisfied the furious crowd that he has surrendered all his assets. If there be one thing in trade worse than fraudulent banking, it is the punishment of bankers by bands of brigands. If lynch law were permitted to punish the most patent and outrageous frauds against creditors, it would certainly not be very long before in some parts of the country any man who failed in business on a large scale, however innocently, would be exposed to the most horrible violence at the hands of any creditor able to get together a crowd of roughs and call them "enraged citizens." The Roman and mediæval legislation against insolvent debtors was barbarous enough, but it was far from approaching this Kansas method in cruelty and indecency. Any community in which this Caldwell outrage has lasted for a week should hereafter hold its tongue about the "Mississippi plan."

The latest news from Brazil shows a healthy growth of constitutional ideas and methods in that country. For some time past the Emperor himself has perceived that if the electoral régime enacted by the Constitution were given up for that of direct elections by the people, the

result would be a more trustworthy index of public opinion. After many attempts the trial was made, and the recent election held under it justifies the hopes of its friends. Instead of a unanimous or nearly unanimous Chamber of Deputies, the present Liberal Ministry, which has been as acceptable as any in Brazil, would have to confront, were it to continue in power until the Chamber met, an Opposition of fifty in a house of one hundred and twenty-two members. For the first time in the present reign (and Dom Pedro ascended the throne in 1831) a minister of the Crown has been defeated, and, therefore, has been dismissed from the Cabinet by the people. In the recent election two ministers, both belonging to influential families in Rio de Janeiro and S. Paulo, failed to be reelected, and their resignation only precedes that of the whole Cabinet at the reopening of the National Legislature a few days hence.

The Government is modelled after those of England and Belgium, and its written Constitution, promulgated more than half a century ago, guarantees most of the political and civil rights enjoyed in the more advanced communities. The trouble in Brazil has been that the people are not sufficiently educated to apprehend and assimilate the liberties granted by law. In a constitutional monarchy, a good division of powers and their proper balance are essential to a smooth working of the delicate machinery of the Government. Thus, if the people fail to take their full share in the direction of affairs, some other power will lose a restraint which by the theory of the Government is indispensable; and that power itself is placed in the false position of usurping attributes not belonging to it. Such has been the case in Brazil. The Constitution is very liberal. The Emperor has no responsibility, and none of his orders is valid unless countersigned by one of his Ministers. These are supposed to be, as in England, a committee of Parliament. The Parliament is made up of two houses, the Senators being elected for life by electors chosen by all citizens having a net income of about one hundred dollars per annum, and the Deputies being elected for four years by electors chosen in the same manner. Such has been the theory. But in practice the electoral laws have been so fashioned as to give undue power to the Cabinet. The Ministers have found it easy to manipulate the electors and corrupt them with the "spoils." And this abuse has compelled the Emperor, in self-defence, to resort to another abuse—that of dissolving Parliament in circumstances not allowed by the written Constitution, thus arousing among the intelligent classes a clamor against "personal power" which would imperil the throne of any monarch less respected than Dom Pedro is.

The repeated efforts Prince Bismarck is making to put the old Emperor into the foreground as the originator and champion of the measures urged in the celebrated "Imperial speech," are not a sign of strength or confidence. There was a time when he would scarcely have resorted to such a stage-trick. His utterance,

in response to a complimentary address, that he firmly believed in the "ultimate victory" of his plans, "but had little hope himself of seeing the success of the proposed reforms," has rather a discouraged sound. The recent vote of the Reichstag rejecting by a two-thirds majority the appropriation for the expenses of the "Economic Council," a pet scheme of the Chancellor's, advocated by himself in an "energetic speech," showed very clearly that the combination of the Conservatives and Clericals cannot be depended upon in support of the Government measures. The "Economic Council" was to be a commission of experts on matters of trade, industry, and labor, to consider economical questions, for the purpose of advising the Government and the Reichstag. In proposing the formation of such a commission outside of the Reichstag the Chancellor was suspected of a design to depreciate the parliamentary power and to limit the range of its inquiry and action. The Reichstag, resenting this, voted down the appropriation by 169 to 83, in spite of Prince Bismarck's personal appeal, and in this vote the Clericals were found side by side with the Liberal Opposition. It is most probable that the same will be the case when the tobacco monopoly and the question of biennial budgets come up.

The Scotch landlords have long been separated from the farmers by the fact that they are generally Episcopalians, while the tenants are Presbyterians. It is long, too, since they had any political influence. They had to surrender it in order to get good farming, and they and their tenants have for fifty years belonged in the main to different parties. The landlords are mostly Tories, the farmers Liberals. These things have in some degree assimilated the Scotch landowner to the French Legitimist. Having nothing to gain, like the Englishman, by being "bluff" and hearty and genial, he has become more exclusive and fastidious and blood-proud and even haughty than his English brother, in order to protect his position against the popular lack of reverence for the caste. The farmer has, however, not remained content either with political independence or with the comparatively long leases which constitute so marked a difference between English and Scotch land tenure. He is restive under the stipulations in the lease by which the landlord exercises more or less active control over the mode of farming, and still more under the landlord's right of distress for the rent, or, as it is called in Scotland, the law of hypothec, which makes the rent the first lien on the crops of the year. They are, moreover, no longer content to have rent settled, commercial fashion, by supply and demand; they wish, like the Irish tenants, to have it fixed by a court. The communications made to the landlords by the Scotch Farmers' Associations on these subjects, during the past summer, have been received in some cases with so much hauteur, and even insolence, that they have greatly stimulated the agitation, which has now resulted in what seems to be a very formidable demonstration, which no Liberal Ministry can afford to disregard.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE Forty-seventh Congress met and was organized on Monday. All the Republican caucus nominees were elected by the House. On taking the chair, Mr. Keifer read a short speech, invoking "aid and generous judgment" in the fulfillment of his duties. All but three of the members of the House were present. In the Senate a number of bills were introduced, among which were bills to provide for the retirement of the trade dollar, and to provide for its recoinage into the standard silver dollar; to place General Grant on the retired list of the army; to punish attempts to take the life of the President of the United States; and to provide for the issue of three per cent. bonds. This last bill was introduced by Mr. Sherman, and enacts that such bonds be payable at the pleasure of the United States after January 1st, 1887, and that the money deposited under the Act shall be applied solely to the redemption of the bonds bearing three and a-half per cent. interest.

The President's message was delivered to Congress on Tuesday. He reviews our relations with foreign nations, and declares them to be satisfactory. Steps have been taken to secure the better protection of American Hebrews in Russia and American missionaries in Turkey. A protest has been addressed to the Swiss Government in regard to the deportation of criminals to this country, and treaties of commerce and navigation have been concluded with Rumania and Servia. In regard to the Panama Canal the President reviews the action of President Garfield's Administration in the matter, and announces that he has supplemented the action of his predecessor by proposing to the British Government the modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the "abrogation of such clauses thereof as do not comport with the obligations of the United States toward Colombia, or with the vital needs of the two friendly powers to the compact." The temporary misunderstanding between our Ministers to Peru and Chili is ascribed to the want of "prompt reciprocal communication," and the President announces that he has sent special envoys to both republics, with general instructions which, it is hoped, will enable them to bring these powers into friendly relations. The President, in treating our relations with the East, announces that he hopes at some future time to lay before Congress a scheme for the improvement of our system of consular jurisdiction throughout the entire East. In regard to domestic matters, the President in the main approves the recommendations which have been made by the heads of the different departments in their annual reports. He approves all the important suggestions of the Secretary of the Treasury in regard to the finances; recommends the retirement of the silver certificates, and that the coinage of silver be confined to what is required by demand. He is opposed to the refunding of the 3½ per cent. bonds, unless they can be refunded at a much lower rate than they now bear. The appointment of a commission to revise the tariff is recommended, but "important changes are to be made with caution." In regard to the Star-route prosecutions, the President states that he has enjoined upon the officials who are charged with the matter "the duty of prosecuting with the utmost vigor of the law."

The question of the civil-service reform is treated at some length. The President regards some sort of reform as necessary, but objects to appointment and promotion by competition on the ground that such a method has met with success in England when accompanied with life tenure, limitations of maximum age at entrance, and a retiring allowance, which features he thinks would not be regarded with favor in the United States, and he doubts the success of the system without them. He sug-

gests the "submission of a portion of the nominations to a central board of examiners, selected solely for testing the qualifications of applicants, without resort to the competitive test." The decline of our merchant marine is deplored, and the same kind of aid and protection as has been bestowed upon our manufactures is recommended. To put down polygamy in the Territories, legislation is recommended "by which any person solemnizing a marriage in any of the Territories shall be required to file a certificate of such marriage in the Supreme Court of the Territory." In concluding his message the President calls the attention of Congress to the question of Presidential inability, and recommends that speedy consideration be given to it.

A resolution was adopted by both Houses of Congress on Tuesday, providing for the appointment of a joint committee to consider "by what token of respect and affection it may be proper for the Congress of the United States to express the deep sensibility of the nation at the decease of its late President."

The Republican Senators in caucus on Monday unanimously agreed to support a resolution of Mr. Edmunds providing for continuing the Senate committees as they existed during the last session.

The contest for the Speakership of the House of Representatives was decided in the Republican caucus on Saturday by the nomination of Mr. Keifer of Ohio on the sixteenth ballot. The largest factor in bringing about this result was the transfer, under Mr. Cameron's orders, of the votes of the Pennsylvania delegation from Mr. Hiseock to Mr. Keifer. Edward McPherson was nominated for Clerk of the House and Colonel George W. Hooker for Sergeant-at-Arms. The Democratic caucus which met on the same day renominated all the officers of the last House.

Guiteau continued the story of his life on Wednesday, and gave his reasons for assassinating the President. The court-room was crowded to excess, and Guiteau seems to have felt it to be one of the proudest moments of his life. He reiterated his old story of Divine inspiration, and said that he had considered the country to be drifting into a civil war owing to the split in the Republican party. He caused some amusement by his statement that he had had for twenty years the idea that he was going to be President of the United States, and that he expected to "make it yet," as he anticipated a decided change in public opinion in regard to himself. He made several remarks of this character which would seem to indicate, if not a disordered mind, at least an egotism so excessive as to border upon it. Their effect was counterbalanced, however, by his cleverness in avoiding self-contradiction and in getting out of difficulties when cornered in the cross-examination, which was begun on the same day and was ably conducted by Judge Porter. The aim of Judge Porter's questions was to involve the prisoner in contradictions in regard to his "Divine inspiration" theory. One unimportant but amusing point brought out was Guiteau's novel method of obtaining law business in connection with getting prisoners out of the Ludlow Street Jail in New York. He said that he paid a commission to a prisoner in the jail who was a "big talker," and who would recommend him to other prisoners. The cross-examination was continued on Thursday and concluded on Friday. The prisoner was involved in a few contradictions, but on the whole adhered closely to his "inspiration" theory. He was very insolent to Mr. Porter, and once or twice utterly refused to answer his questions. When he saw himself in danger of being cornered, or when irritated in any way, he was apt to become abusive. His remark in reply to one of Mr. Porter's questions, "If your head is so thick that you cannot get the idea in, I won't try to pound it in. Don't ask your

questions in a mean, sickly sort of way," was illustrative of his whole bearing during the cross-examination. On Saturday, among the witnesses examined were Mr. Emory Storrs, of Chicago, and Senator David Davis. Mr. Storrs turned out to be rather an unfortunate witness for the defence, as he distinctly stated that he had never seen anything in Guiteau which led him to believe that he could not distinguish between right and wrong. Nothing of importance was elicited from Senator Davis. On Monday, eight medical experts testified as witnesses for the defence. An elaborate hypothetical question was put to them to the effect that if insanity were assumed to exist in the prisoner's family, and he himself had been at one time demented, and if his alleged belief that he acted on Divine inspiration were assumed to be true, did they think he was insane? To this seven of the witnesses answered that if the proposition were true, the prisoner was insane. The eighth said he would not express an opinion until he had a clearer explanation of the word inspiration than Mr. Scoville gave him. As usual, the prisoner interfered in the proceedings. He showed that he was sensitive on the question of his mental powers, saying that he would rather be "hung as a sensible man than acquitted as a fool." He also objected to the implication that he was a vulgar criminal, saying there was "nothing vulgar about this case; it is all high-toned."

The public debt was reduced \$7,249,126 in the month of November, which makes the reduction for the five months of the present fiscal year over \$62,000,000, against \$37,000,000 for the corresponding months of last year. The decrease for last month was twice as great as for November, 1880, and the receipts from customs and the internal revenue show an increase of \$3,000,000 as compared with the same month of 1880.

The annual report of Mr. Nimmo, the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, on the foreign commerce of the United States for the fiscal year, shows it to have amounted to \$1,675,024,318, a sum larger than in any previous year in the history of the country. There was a great increase in the exportation of the products of the Western and Northwestern States, largely owing to the reduction in the transportation charges on the railroads, lakes, and the Erie Canal.

On Saturday the retiring Grand Jury presented indictments against Deputy Sixth Auditor Tilley and Contractor Brott. The attempt which was made last week to hold Tilley before United States Commissioner Bundy fell through, as we stated in our last issue, owing to the disappearance of Brott, who was to have been the Government's chief witness. As it now turns out, it would have been better for Mr. Brott had he appeared on that occasion, as he is now held as principal instead of witness. The Government's prospects in the Star-route prosecutions, which looked rather discouraging last week, are now brightening a little.

A new Grand Jury will be convened in the District of Columbia at the end of this week, and it is understood that the Government will at once present the evidence against the leaders of the Star-route ring. An indictment will in all probability be found in the Dorsey case, as the evidence is voluminous. In the Prescott and Santa Fé case the defendants will probably plead the statute of limitations in regard to part of the allegations. These proceedings will be watched with interest, as the Government is said to have some strong cases, and an opportunity will be afforded to retrieve previous failures in the Star-route prosecutions.

A new convention for the exchange of money orders between the United States and Switzerland, to go into effect on the 1st of January, was signed by the President on Wednesday. Its effect will be to reduce the charges on orders issued in the United States on Switzer-

land to the same rates as those on French, German, and Italian orders.

The Washington Citizens' Committee of One Hundred intends to take energetic steps during this session of Congress to bring about some action in regard to the Potomac flats. The committee is composed of some of the most influential citizens in Washington, but heretofore, even with the coöperation of the President, they have been unable to bring about any result in this matter, which is of such vital importance to the health of the capital.

Senator Beck was unanimously renominated by a joint caucus of the Kentucky Legislature for Senator, on Thursday. This action of course makes his election a mere formality.

Tax Receiver Hunter of Philadelphia made his report before the Common Council on Thursday. The report shows that great frauds have been committed in the Tax Office and Almshouse departments of the city government. Mr. Hunter stated that the examination of the books of the Tax Office had not much more than commenced, and that he was, therefore, unable as yet to estimate the amount of the frauds. There seems to have been collusion between the Controller and the Tax Receiver, and a system of false entries in the books of the departments adopted by which the city was "annually robbed of thousands of dollars." The whole matter was referred to the Finance Committee, at the suggestion of Mr. Hunter, in spite of an interested movement to appoint a special committee.

One Danford, a defaulting Kansas cashier, has been forcibly detained by his creditors, at Caldwell, under threat of death in case he refused to settle. The Governor tardily made a show of calling out the militia, but was defied by the mob, and a committee finally brought the prisoner to terms.

FOREIGN.

In the German Reichstag, on Wednesday, Prof. Virchow made an attack on the Government. He said that the Progressists, when they joined the *Kulturkampf*, had hoped that Prince Bismarck would definitively liberate the schools from clerical influence. To this Prince Bismarck replied that the reproach was unjustifiable, and that even if he were really inclined to continue the struggle, he should be hindered by the fact that his former allies had deserted him and driven him into the arms of the Centre party. It is said that after Wednesday's proceedings in the Reichstag doubts are no longer entertained that a Clerical and Conservative coalition has been concluded. On Thursday, Bismarck was defeated in the vote for money for the expenses of an Economical Council, notwithstanding the fact that he made a speech showing that this council was absolutely necessary, and that if money for it were not forthcoming, he would be compelled to request the governments of the various States to send their deputies to a Prussian economical council. On Friday there was a discussion on the emigration question, one speaker impliedly advising that less care be bestowed upon German emigrants on their arrival in America, as the present system was only calculated to foster the desire to emigrate. To this it was replied that the Government could not relinquish the care of emigrants either in the ports of departure or landing. It is stated that the Progressist, Secessionist, and National Liberal parties have taken measures in order that the Liberal parties may work together in future.

The Emperor William has had an interview with the President and Vice-President of the Reichstag, in the course of which he emphatically declared that his message, read at the opening of the Reichstag, was the fullest expression of his innermost convictions as to the welfare of the nation.

The speech of King Charles of Rumania in regard to the necessity of Rumanian control of the navigation of the Danube has caused trouble between Austria and that country. The Austrian Government has directed the Austrian Minister at Bucharest to suspend all personal relations with the Rumanian Cabinet until the return to Vienna of Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs. It is thought, however, that the difficulty will be arranged without much trouble.

The Servian Government will introduce into the Skuptchina in March a Jewish Emancipation Bill in conformity with the Treaty of Berlin. By this bill the Servian Jews will be placed on an equality with Jews who are Austrian subjects.

More Greek post-offices have been closed by the Turkish Government. The Porte has issued a circular to the Powers explaining that the principal motive for closing the post-offices was to retaliate for the premature closing of the Turkish post-office at Larissa. The foreign ambassadors are said to be discussing the post-office question and also the frontier difficulties.

The Russian Government has issued a decree providing that all trials for crimes against the state, as well as those especially calculated to excite the people, shall be held with closed doors, and that only the officers and the wife or one direct relative of the accused shall be admitted.

A court-martial which has excited great interest in Russia has just been brought to a close. Prince Shervashidze, who wounded a merchant in a restaurant last summer, has been found guilty and sentenced to exile in Archangel, with deprivation of his rights as a nobleman.

A St. Petersburg despatch states that the Chinese intend to fortify extensively the western frontier of Kulja next spring, and to transfer there 8,000 families to replace those who emigrated to Russia. There have been two Mussulman revolts against the Chinese garrison at Yang-Hissar during the last four months. They were attended with the usual indiscriminate massacres.

Accounts of disturbances in Ireland still continue. Torturing and killing the cattle of rent-paying farmers is a class of outrages which is growing in popularity. Opposition to rent-paying is said to be especially marked in the county of Limerick, where the Sheriff was reported on Thursday to hold 300 writs of eviction against tenants for rent due. Prof. Goldwin Smith, however, seems to find encouragement in the condition of affairs, as he has written to the *Pall Mall Gazette* that he considers the phase of agrarian crime less dangerous than the domination of the Land League. The rent-paying farmers whose cattle are being killed and who are being shot at every day or two, probably regard this as a very poor sort of consolation. The Ladies' Land League continues active operations in exhorting tenants not to pay rent, and in giving assistance to those who obey their behests. A lady, Miss Reynolds by name, who has been especially conspicuous in this sort of work of late, has been served with a summons charging her with aiding and abetting a criminal conspiracy to prevent payment of rent.

A great demonstration in connection with the land agitation was held at Aberdeen, Scotland, on Thursday. Two thousand delegates, representing 40,000 farmers, were present. Resolutions were adopted demanding a general reduction of rents, compensation for improvements, the abolition of the laws of hypothec and entail, and other legislation in the interest of tenant farmers. A Farmers' Alliance for Scotland was formed.

A grave robbery has been discovered in Scotland. The body of the late Earl of Craw-

ford and Balcarres was stolen from his tomb at Duncricht some months ago, but the fact was not discovered until recently. Money is supposed to have been the motive of the thieves. No arrests have been made in connection with the matter as yet.

Mr. Samuel Morley, M. P., who has recently been travelling in the United States, made a speech on Wednesday evening, in which he said that he could bear testimony to the hearty feeling toward England which pervaded America. He also said that the Western States offered great attractions for certain classes of the surplus population of Great Britain, and recommended farmers to go there.

A meeting is to be held on Wednesday in Westminster Abbey, to consider the subject of a memorial to the late Dean Stanley. Mr. Lowell has been invited to attend the meeting, in token of the respect evinced for the memory of Dean Stanley in America.

There have been rumors circulated that the Duke of Cambridge was hostile to the appointment of Sir Garnet Wolseley as Adjutant-General of the army, but an official announcement from the War Office, to the effect that General Wolseley will, like his predecessor, transact official business under the authority and responsibility of the Commander-in-Chief, is regarded as a denial of such rumors.

In reply to several speeches in the French Chamber of Deputies, M. Gambetta said on Thursday that he was opposed to the annexation of Tunis, and that the task imposed on France by virtue of the policy she has adopted was not that of annexation, but protection. He said that the regency would prove a vigilant and necessary doorkeeper for the French colonies in Africa. He further stated that the Government had no intention of pushing military occupation to the frontier of Tripoli, because it was not desirable to have the Porte for an immediate neighbor.

M. Rouvier, the French Minister of Commerce, said on Monday that he was willing to withdraw M. Tirard's decree concerning American pork if the Americans would submit to a trustworthy system of inspection; also, that he admitted that the French Chambers ought to respond to the action of the American Congress by taking the initiative relative to the appointment of commissioners to conclude a Franco-American treaty of commerce.

At a recent meeting in Paris of the Consulting Commission of the Panama Canal, convened by M. de Lesseps, the opinion was expressed that the nature of the soil of the Isthmus had been found to be such that it was thought much of the estimated expense of construction would be saved.

The French Scientific Society has submitted a plan for the construction of a canal across France to connect the Atlantic and Mediterranean, which has been approved by the Council-General of the Seine.

It is reported that 3,000 French troops will return from Tunis to France on the 15th instant. A number of the insurgents have surrendered to the French.

The Spanish Senate has passed bills for converting the redeemable debt, and authorizing the Government to enter into negotiations with the holders of consolidated stock. In the Chamber of Deputies a resolution modifying the Parliamentary oath so as to avoid doing violence to the conscience of the deputies of any religious belief, was taken into consideration with the consent of the Ministry.

Radicals have been elected to the Presidency and Vice-Presidency of the Swiss Council of State.

The trial of Esposito, the Italian brigand, has begun in the Court of Assize at Palermo. There are six counts in the indictment.

THE GUITEAU TRIAL.

IN judging the performances of Guiteau at his trial, and the course of his counsel in producing him as a witness in proof of his own insanity, we must not forget that the example of sensationalism in the conduct of the case was really set by the prosecution. It was District Attorney Corkhill who furnished the key-note of the proceedings by the utterly unnecessary minuteness with which he proved the notorious and undenied fact of the killing, and by the unnecessary and most revolting production in court of a piece of the late President's vertebrae to be handled by the jury and the prisoner. It is not surprising that after this both Guiteau and the spectators should have looked on the trial as a species of melodrama, in which everybody was entitled to make the most of his own rôle.

To Guiteau the trial is evidently the great success and the highest gratification of his life. There is probably nothing for which he has longed so much during the last twenty years as public notoriety and an attentive audience. These things he has now for the first time secured. He is more talked about at this moment than any other man in the United States, and he is eagerly listened to on his favorite topic—his own career and his mental condition at various times. But, as a correspondent well pointed out in these columns last week, the craving for fame is not a sign of insanity. In fact, the really insane, if their minds run on this point at all, believe they have secured fame already, while intense desire for it and readiness to resort to almost any means to obtain it, are a characteristic of hundreds of thousands whose capacity to bear the ordinary responsibilities of society no one doubts. Guiteau's conceit and love of talking about himself are, in fact, phenomena with which we are all familiar, not only among the sane but among the eminent and highly placed sane. We see every day able and distinguished men who think their own personality as attractive and deserving a subject as can engage the human understanding. It would never do, therefore, to allow a murderer to escape the gallows by the display of an inordinate self-esteem. It is time enough to doubt the sanity of such a man when he is satisfied that the world shares his own estimate of himself.

After one has got over the absurdity of calling a man as a witness—not as a patient—to prove his own insanity, the thing in Guiteau's testimony which is most worthy of attention is the light it throws on the lives of that large class to which he belongs, and which it is now the fashion to call "cranks." Now that his case has called unusual attention to them, it is found that everybody occupying a position in any sense prominent or public, and particularly newspaper editors, has had much experience of them. They are not absolutely cracked, but they are too unsteady and too wanting in persistence and in capacity for fixed attention to follow any regular calling successfully. They are generally much given to speculation on social and religious topics, and to the concoction of schemes of social reform. American society produces them in larger numbers than European

society, because it runs less in class grooves, and presents a wider field of possibility to the philosophical as well as commercial adventurer. The rigidity of custom, and the strength of official etiquette in Europe, steady many a brain which here would go clean daft. It would, for instance, never have entered the head of an English or French Guiteau that he could get the Austrian mission or even the Paris consulship. But here it really was not such a very wild dream after all. He had seen things nearly as good go to persons whose equipment of all kinds was not indisputably better than his own.

A very great stimulus was given to the production of "cranks" by the reform movement of fifty years ago. But then it furnished them with harmless mental occupation. The people who protested against the tyranny of custom by sitting naked on their own stoops in Boston, or who asserted the non-moral quality of all spoken words by swearing profusely in the Concord stage, were not a whit saner than Guiteau. But that general expectation of the social millennium of which transcendentalism formed a part, and which spread over the world after the French Revolution of 1830, may be said to have furnished them with a wide field for their activity. They hung on to the skirts of the anti-slavery agitation in great numbers. They busied themselves with Theodore Parker's theology. They joined in the temperance movement, and made a stand against bolted flour, against meat, raw oysters, tobacco, and perpetual marriage. They started small newspapers of their own for the promotion of their favorite "ism," or published pamphlets, or established little churches which lasted until something new caught their eye. But as a rule they cared little about politics, and paid small attention to the strife of parties. The gradual decline of the transcendental state of mind; the triumph of most of the struggling reforms; the growing indifference of the public to dogmatic discussion; the failure of most of the communistic enterprises, and indeed of nearly all the early efforts after queer living, have now deprived them of perhaps as healthful an occupation as their brains could have had. Guiteau's history shows that the country no longer offers them the old opportunities of innocent fussiness. He took politics up because all other delusions and follies had failed him, and here at last he saw, what he had never lighted on in any of his other ventures, the opportunity for a great stroke.

If the public generally knew with how little respect expert testimony on the subject of insanity is regarded in courts of justice, the interest in the alienist witnesses in the Guiteau case would greatly diminish. The language used about it by the best judges has almost invariably been to the last degree contemptuous. Many of them have sarcastically described it as a kind of testimony which can be got as readily by one side as by the other in any required amount, while at least one court of established reputation has declared it to be absolutely "worthless." The reasons for this unfavorable opinion are very strong. In the first place,

expert witnesses are generally retained by the party who produces them. Their value as experts depends upon their reputation and standing, and the greater this is the more they have to be paid. But it also depends entirely on their impartiality, and their impartiality is destroyed by the very fact of payment. The retaining of expert witnesses in criminal trials has long been recognized as a scandal in the administration of justice, and all expert testimony, whether paid or not—and how this may be in the Guiteau case we do not know—suffers from the suspicion attached to it.

In the second place, alienists who pass upon the question of mental disease are in reality not experts on the only material fact involved in the trial of the criminal—that of responsibility for the criminal act. What an alienist does is to pass upon the mental soundness of the prisoner, just as any ordinary physician passes upon a patient's physical soundness. What he has before him, accordingly, is not a standard of criminal responsibility, but one of mental health; and as perfect health is just as uncommon in the case of the mind as of the body, the testimony of alienists almost always discloses the startling fact that they believe a large percentage of the population of the world to be "insane." One of the experts on Monday, for instance, testified that "out of twenty-five persons in ordinary life, five are insane"; that among twenty-five ordinary business men he "would probably find five of them insane." In this statement the witness was probably perfectly sincere, but it has no bearing whatever on the question as to whether Guiteau ought to be hanged.

As has been repeatedly pointed out, this question must be decided mainly by practical tests furnished by common sense and the experience of mankind. This is precisely the point at which law and medical science on the subject of insanity diverge. To ascertain whether a criminal should be punished or not, all that justice requires to know is not whether his mind is unbalanced, or in an unhealthy condition, but whether punishment, or the fear of it, acts upon his mind as it does upon other men's. If it does, then he is responsible for his acts. The legal tests of "capacity to distinguish between right and wrong," and of knowing "the nature and quality of the act," amount to no more than this, and they are not at all the tests which an alienist applies when asked whether a criminal is sane or insane.

When, however, we reach the region of hypothetical questions in such a case as Guiteau's the investigation becomes almost farcical. The hypothetical question asked by his counsel was as follows:

"Q. Assuming it to be a fact that there was a strong hereditary taint of insanity in the blood of the prisoner at the bar; also that at about the age of thirty-five years his own mind was so much deranged that he was a fit subject to be sent to an insane asylum; also that at different times after that date, during the next succeeding five years, he manifested such decided symptoms of insanity, without simulation, that many different persons conversing with him and observing his conduct believed him to be insane; also that in or about the month of June, 1881, at or about the expiration of said term of five years, he became demented by the idea that he was inspired of God to remove by death the President of the United States; also that he acted on what he

believed to be such inspiration, and on what he believed to be in accordance with the Divine will in the preparation for and in the accomplishment of such a purpose; also that he committed the act of shooting the President under what he believed to be a Divine command which he was not at liberty to disobey, and which belief made out a conviction which controlled his conscience and overpowered his will as to that act so that he could not resist the mental pressure upon him; also that immediately after the shooting he appeared calm and as if relieved by the performance of a great duty; also that there was no other adequate motive for the act than the conviction that he was executing the Divine will for the good of his country—assuming all of these propositions to be true, state whether, in your opinion, the prisoner was sane or insane at the time of shooting President Garfield?"

In other words, if he was insane at various times down to the shooting of the President, was he probably sane when he shot him? This is not a very good specimen of a hypothetical question, but its absurdity is only an extreme illustration of the general uselessness of the class of testimony to which the answer it was framed to bring out belongs. The hypothesis is always a mere array of what the counsel who frames it assumes, rightly or wrongly, to have been proved on the trial, stated in the most extreme way for the benefit of his client, and the answer up to which it leads is determined by the form and character of the question.

There has probably never been a case in the history of crime in which expert testimony was likely to prove so utterly worthless as in Guiteau's. It is obvious to any one who has followed the trial that he is not mentally sound. His behavior from the first has been such as would be impossible if his mind were in a healthy state. No expert testimony can make this fact any plainer than it is now. But it is not to find out that he is a "crank" that the trial is going on. What the jury have got to decide is whether, in the case of men like Guiteau, punishment has the same salutary effect that it has in the case of ordinary criminals. It does not require that he should have a well-balanced mind for this; and consequently the opinion of experts as to his sanity or insanity is very nearly irrelevant, while their opinion as to the sanity or insanity of a hypothetical Guiteau, imagined by his counsel, may be set down as totally worthless.

THE SPEAKERSHIP OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

THE Speaker of the House of Representatives is the most powerful man in the Government next to the President himself. While it is the President's constitutional duty to execute the laws, and he is entrusted with certain limited powers to that end, the Speaker exercises, or at least can exercise, upon the making of the laws not only more influence than the President, but sometimes even more than the majority of the House over which he presides. The principal legislative work of the House of Representatives is done in the committees. There bills are discussed, amended, and prepared in detail. The House itself is more a voting than a deliberating body. Debate is limited, and generally exercises scarcely any influence upon the votes of members, except when so directed as to make an impression upon public opinion calculated to frighten time-serving politicians in

Congress. To change a legislative measure in the House against the wish of the committee having it in charge, is very difficult unless the attempt be aided by the Speaker. It is, in the first place, the privilege of the Speaker to appoint the committees which prepare legislation. Then it is the Speaker who "recognizes" members who claim the floor. It is within his power to give the preference to this one or that one, as he may prefer the proposition to be brought forward by this one or that one. He construes in the first instance and enforces the complicated rules of the House, which are a profound mystery to most members, and he may construe and enforce them, or omit to enforce them, in favor of or against motions or amendments as he may favor or oppose these, and the ruling of the Speaker is but rarely reversed by a vote of the House. The action or pretended action of the House of Representatives is not seldom so rapid and confused that scarcely anybody but the presiding officer knows what is going on, and he may sometimes put motions to a vote and declare them carried or defeated without attracting the attention of anybody except those immediately interested. It is, therefore, assumed by many that when the Speaker is in favor of a measure his support is almost as good as a majority, and that when the Speaker earnestly opposes a bill its friends will have to be very keen and active to save its chances. It is needless to point out how dangerously such a power may be abused when entrusted to an unscrupulous man.

The first quality, therefore, a Speaker should possess, to do full justice to the requirements of his position, is that impartiality which rises above all selfish considerations. He should never forget that it is his duty not to do legislative business for the House, or even without the House, but to guide the House in doing that business according to the true sense of the majority. The second requirement for a successful conduct of the Speaker's office is of course a sufficient acquaintance with the rules and with parliamentary practice and precedent, and that quickness and clearness of insight, and promptness of judgment and decision, necessary for the control of a large and somewhat unruly assembly. If the Speaker has in his bearing that natural force of authority which makes itself obeyed, so much the better. It is needless to say that a combination of all these qualities is not very frequently found.

The Republican caucus of the House of Representatives last Saturday nominated for the Speakership Mr. Joseph Warren Keifer of Ohio. Mr. Keifer achieved an honorable reputation as a soldier in the war of the Rebellion, and occupied, not a prominent, but a respectable position in the House of Representatives. There is nothing in his record which suggests a particular reason why he of all men should be chosen Speaker; but comparing him with the other gentlemen mentioned as candidates for the place, there is no apparent reason why he should not be chosen. He is a man of irreproachable character and good impulses. He will undoubtedly try to wield his power in the interest of the public good. His abilities have, by the common opinion of his colleagues, not been rated far

above mediocrity. Whether he is as conversant with rules and parliamentary practice as a Speaker should be will soon become known. The minority is strong enough to give him trouble. But he has a certain dignity of manner which not seldom goes with moderate parts, and sufficient affability to conciliate good feeling. If Mr. Keifer does not make a "great Speaker," it may certainly be said that among his competitors there was, except perhaps Mr. Kasson, nobody that might have made a greater one.

Mr. Keifer owes his good fortune to a combination which may embarrass him if he permits it to exercise much influence over him. His nomination was brought about by the interference of Senator Cameron, who induced the Republican members from Pennsylvania to aid in carrying out the decree of the "bosses" that Mr. Hiscock must be punished. The fight between the Stalwarts and Anti-Stalwarts is therefore to go on. The more the old issues between the great political parties become obliterated, the more animated becomes the war of factions inside of them. This is a natural development which will lead to others equally natural. But the "bosses," after all, lack shrewdness. They permit their vindictiveness to run away with their common sense, and this never pays. The New York "bosses" have certainly not strengthened themselves by destroying the chance of a Representative of New York for the Speakership. The "bosses," it seems, have ceased to be sharp politicians.

A SHIPPING REVIVAL.

THE somewhat familiar plan for the revival of our ocean carrying-trade which Mr. John Roach submitted to the Tariff Convention differs from other schemes considered by that body in this respect: the latter are intended to continue the fostering process of protection in its application to actual and flourishing industries; the former proposes to create off-hand an industry which has no existence. For the illustration which Mr. Roach triumphantly finds in our coast carrying-trade is really no illustration at all. It may be true that in ten years we have built for that traffic 120 iron and twenty-five wooden steamships, with a total tonnage of 27,563; but we have done it because the coasting trade is absolutely prohibited to foreign nations. The increase of this business, which Mr. Roach says "has exceeded our unparalleled progress in manufacturing industries," is not due to bounties and subsidies, but to the actual exclusion of foreign owners and builders from it. Merchants engaged in this trade have bought dear American ships because they were not allowed to buy any others. Mr. Roach has sold ships for this trade, notwithstanding the higher wages and heavier taxes which builders on the Delaware have to pay as compared with builders on the Clyde, because he has had a monopoly of the market. Commerce along the coast must go in American bottoms, and American bottoms must be launched from American yards or that commerce must cease.

It is scarcely necessary to say that this prohibition cannot be applied to the foreign carrying-trade. We may indeed declare that the flag of the Union shall float only over ships

built in American yards—our navigation laws do so declare; but we cannot declare that there shall be no commerce between this country and Europe except in American bottoms. If we could do that, our ocean trade might soon rival our coasting-trade in growth. But if we should shut English, German, and French ships out of our ports, Great Britain, Germany, and France would shut American ships out of their ports; and in that event it would not be worth while for us to have ocean-going vessels. The illustration which Mr. Roach draws from our prosperous and exclusive coasting-trade, therefore, is not pertinent to a foreign trade in which our high-priced American ships must compete with low-priced English ships.

From the published reports of his address it does not appear that Mr. Roach lays so much stress upon the question of taxes, as related to the shipping interest, as he did some months ago in a letter to the *Evening Post* accounting for the failure of his Brazilian line. Perhaps his silence in the circumstances is not surprising. From oppressive taxes levied by a State to burdensome customs-duties imposed by the United States, the advance is easy, and it would lead a paper-reader before a Tariff Convention upon forbidden ground. We agree with Mr. Roach that ships should be relieved of local taxation so far as possible. When a British owner is assessed only upon the income or profits from his ship, while an American owner is assessed upon the value of his ship without regard to income or profits, the inequality is obvious. We go farther than Mr. Roach, however. We contend not only that ships should be relieved of local taxation, but that foreign articles which enter into the construction of a ship should be free of duty. But so far as a revival of shipping is concerned high taxes furnish an argument for the free-ship policy rather than against it, because, if taxes add to the cost of shipowning, there is the stronger reason for allowing owners to buy ships where they are cheapest. It is worth noting, by the way, that the passage by the Legislature of this State of a law to exempt ships from taxation has not elicited from Mr. Roach those lively expressions of gratitude which might reasonably have been looked for.

It is a mistake to suppose that a shipping revival can be effected by turning the hand or by passing an act of Congress. No "policy" whatever would accomplish so magical a result as to bring to life forthwith a dead industry. We have so far lost the maritime habit, and other nations have so far outstripped us in the race of the seas, that if the most liberal measures were adopted, if unjust taxes and tariffs were set aside, if the navigation laws were repealed to-morrow and our merchants were allowed to buy the best ships in the cheapest markets, our recovery would be gradual and slow. Still less would the flag be restored to the ocean by the most lavish system of subsidies. Apart altogether from the essential wrong of that policy, it would not accomplish what some persons expect of it. It might enable Mr. Roach to sell a few ships, but it would not restore the lost ocean carrying-trade. That

trade is a business and must be founded upon broad business principles. A Congress which granted a subsidy one year might withdraw it the next year. Intelligent and farseeing men of business will not risk their capital upon the caprice of Legislatures and politicians. They will not waste their time in enterprises which do not promise to be self-sustaining upon ordinary commercial considerations. The ocean carrying-trade, upon a field of fair competition, might be made such an enterprise, although foreigners have secured such advantages over us that the work would be laborious and tedious; but upon no other ground is a shipping revival possible.

MR. GLADSTONE'S NEW IRISH DIFFICULTY.

THE Irish troubles of the Gladstone Cabinet appear still far from at an end, owing undoubtedly to a miscalculation about the working of the Land Act. The Land Commission, which was organized to carry it out, was apparently organized on the assumption that only a few cases would come before it, and that, in the majority of cases, the landlords and tenants would settle their differences about rent by private negotiation, on the basis furnished by the decisions of the Commission. It now appears highly probable that the judgment of the Court will be asked for by one-quarter if not one-half of the tenants, or, in other words, that it is not unreasonable to anticipate from 100,000 to 150,000 applications to have a "judicial rent" fixed. This would give the Commission, with its present force, in spite of the appointment of several sub-commissions, work enough, it is said, for fifteen years to come, and at best would leave most of the applications undecided for three or four years to come. It is plain, in fact, that instead of two or three sub-commissions, there must be one for every county, or thirty-two in all, and that the powers of every one of these would be tasked to the uttermost. The work of fixing a "judicial rent" is by no means confined to hearing counsel and examining witnesses in court. It involves a visit to the farm in litigation, and the examination of the soil in portions of it, and ocular inspection of the whole of it, often in places very remote from that in which the Commission sits. In this way a single case, however simple, can hardly help occupying two or three days.

As yet the Government has taken no decided steps in the way of preparation for the enormous mass of business with which the courts are threatened, and the result is a feeling of disappointment among the tenants, and of renewed hopefulness among the landlords, which furnishes the "no-rent" agitators with a renewed opportunity for pushing their own programme. In other words, they have apparently thus far succeeded in "swamping," or paralyzing, the Land Court, and in maintaining the condition of doubt or uncertainty which was their main capital. Accordingly, larger and larger numbers of the tenants are reported as undertaking to anticipate the action of the court by refusing to pay rent without a heavy reduction. The reduction is perhaps not greater than the

court would order, and not so great as English landlords are making voluntarily; but it is imposed on the landlords by combination in defiance of the law, and made to cover the rent already due. To make this resistance more effective, "outrages" are being again resorted to as the nights grow longer, and include every species of violence, from murder and mayhem down to the maiming of cattle. The chances are, too, unhappily, that they will increase in number as the winter advances. How to repress them is now the question which perhaps more than any other occupies the public mind in England, and it is so important that it may be said not untruly to put the very existence of the Gladstone Cabinet in some peril.

The situation is briefly this: The Coercion Bill, which the Ministry passed reluctantly and at the last moment, and at the risk of alienating their more radical followers, has failed. It has not produced the slightest effect on the "village tyrants," or "dissolute ruffians"—the classes at which Mr. Forster said it was aimed—while it has, by locking up a considerable number of orators and writers, including four members of Parliament, justified the worst fears of the English Radicals about its operation. It has apparently had no effect whatever on the outrages. The situation is, therefore, considerably worse than it was before coercion was tried, because the next step to be taken is much less clear.

Accordingly, a discussion is now gradually beginning as to the advisableness of trying a suspension of trial by jury for a certain class of offences which the peasantry do not consider disgraceful in any case, and in agrarian matters look on as positively praiseworthy. It is now universally admitted that no convictions can be obtained for any of the crimes called "outrages" about land. It is, therefore, suggested that the magistrates or judges should be given increased powers of summary conviction. But even if this were done, and all the odium incurred to which a Liberal Government would inevitably expose itself by any restriction on the right of trial by jury, there would still remain the difficulty of getting evidence. Witnesses willing to testify in land cases are just as scarce in Ireland as jurymen willing to convict. Having tried this, if it failed, too, the Ministry would find itself face to face with the terrible alternative of having either to acknowledge complete defeat in their chief enterprise, or to resort to martial law in its worst form—namely, that in which the commanding officer shoots every man whose looks he does not like, or who is found out of doors after night-fall, or who cannot give a good account of himself. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the *Pall Mall Gazette* calls for two or three years' patience while the pending experiment is being tried. It is very unlikely, however, that the British public will now begin the display of a virtue which, in the case of Ireland, they have never shown any sign of possessing.

GOOD READING FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

A LARGE part of the pernicious reading in public libraries arises from the ignorance on the

part of the readers that there is anything better. People take up what is laid before them. A certain portion, no doubt, long for and ask for literary food with a "high" flavor; and another portion cannot digest anything solid; but the rest have no ineradicable objection to a good style, to some little information, and a moderate amount of thought. Indeed, we can go further. In New England at least, though transcendentalism, we are told, has run out, the desire for self-improvement, self-culture, which accompanied it has not yet disappeared. But people's knowledge in the matter does not equal either their desires or their perseverance. They do not know where to begin, or in what direction or how to go on; hence courses of reading, Chautauqua societies, and the like. Nevertheless, these do not reach everybody, and the evil remains that the boy and the young woman and the unliterary adult are turned at large into the town library with less likelihood of getting what is best for them than the cattle on the town common. With certain obvious exceptions, everything is at their call, and everything is presented to them in the catalogue as of equal merit. Books for the young, books for the old, books for the learned, books for the ignorant, books for the studious in search of knowledge, for the tired in search of recreation, for the lazy in search of amusement, are all mingled pell-mell with not the slightest indication of their difference.

It is not that the want had not been felt and pointed out often enough, but the difficulties of execution were great, and seemed enormous. Most libraries find it burden enough to get any kind of a catalogue. A select list offers the advantage of shortness, to be sure, but the preparation of notes demands another sort of ability from the copying and digesting of titles, and the fancied need of perfection was an insuperable obstacle. However careful the compiler might be, he was sure to lay himself open to criticism: only omniscience knows the best books in every branch of science. The luckless editor might get in among the juveniles a book better suited to mature readers, or declare a novel to be "sensational" which the readers would label "stupid"; he was sure to leave out Mrs. A's favorite poet, or to assign the wrong grade of merit to the history which Mr. B knows by heart. The difficulty of suiting all tastes is well known; in literature more than anything else, to coin a proverb, What's one man's trash is another man's treat. Only a wise foolhardiness could venture to encounter such perils. However, a real need is usually supplied sooner or later. Annotated catalogues we have had now for some time; of classed ones—classed according to the persons for whom they were intended, not by the subjects of the books—a beginning was made, as our readers may remember, at Quincy, Mass., in the last issue of the general catalogue, which contained some short lists of fiction "for boys from eleven to fourteen," "from twelve to sixteen," "from fourteen upward," "for girls from ten to fifteen," "from thirteen upward," etc. This apparently was found a good practice, but not good enough, because the lists were lost in the mass of other matter. Mr. Adams has now gone further and printed an exclusively "Children's book-list," intended for gratuitous distribution in the public schools.

Two numbers have appeared, one of four pages, devoted to "Fiction," "Fairy Tales," and "Historical Fiction"; the other, of three pages, to "Biography," "History," "Science and Natural History," "Travel and Adventure," and "Miscellaneous." We have not been able to get the opinion of youthful readers; to us the list seems unobjectionable, except that Abbott's

so-called "Histories" would go quite as well in the class of Historical Romances, and Oliver Optic's books should not go in at all. But on one point we find the doctors disagreeing. Two critics, both of whom have much experience of the practical interworking of the library and the school, declare, the one (librarian) that the list is not a quarter long enough, the other (school teacher in another city) that there are twice as many books as children ought to read.

The first objector will be better satisfied with Mr. Larned's "Books for Young Readers," prepared for the Young Men's Library at Buffalo, a small pamphlet of sixty-three pages, containing about 1,900 titles, divided into sixty-five classes, and grouped in each class into three grades, as being severally adapted—1, to the very youngest readers; 2, to boys and girls of an intermediate age; 3, to young people who are approaching maturity and may profitably begin to share the reading of their elders. Moreover, about a third of the titles have prefixed an *, which leads the eye to the word "Recommended," printed at the bottom of each page. It will be seen that Mr. Larned has undertaken everything except writing notes, and run all risks, and it is plain from some modest words in the preface that he knows the dangers, and thinks it better to do as well as he can and take his chance than to leave so desirable a work undone; a determination for which his young clients ought to thank him. The library has printed enough copies to be able to sell some to other libraries. Trustees could not make a better investment. A large portion of the books in this list must be in every town library, and if the "recommended" books are wanting anywhere, some of them might well be procured.

Some time ago a work of similar character for more advanced readers was undertaken by the American Library Association—an annotated hand-book of good reading, or list of 5,000 titles of the best books in all departments of knowledge—best, that is, for the general reader: 5,000 books which no town library should be without. The selection was to be carefully made and the notes prepared by one editor, but he was to get assistance from every competent person whom he could induce to give him hints or to criticise his work. According to the plan, which was almost utopian, the whole book was to be kept permanently in type, and the best new publications added to the successive editions, room being made for them by dropping titles of such works as were least valuable or seemed obsolescent. This addition would have been a very valuable feature; the leaving out would have been in itself less important, and a work of extreme difficulty. Nor would the gradual growth of such a manual, by an excess of literary births over deaths, have been an evil, provided it did not make the manual too bulky and too costly. This, however, is a question for the editor and the finance manager; it does not concern the public. The plan excited much enthusiasm at the Library Conference held in Boston in 1879. Enough subscribers to guarantee the success of the first edition were readily obtained, the work was put in hand, but nothing has yet appeared, and, till lately, discouraging replies have been returned to the questions of impatient subscribers. We hope that some rumors of renewed activity and approaching publication are to be trusted; for such a work will not only be a guide to the book-buyer and the studious reader, like Appleton's "Library Manual" and Putnam's "Best Reading," and induce a certain number of persons to pursue a very much better course of reading than they would otherwise do, by facilitating their selection of good books, but it might even be used as a library catalogue, at least in some of our newer

or our future libraries, and as a supplementary catalogue by older collections, the trustees buying all, or as nearly all as their funds would allow, of the books in the list, and then having an edition struck off with their own book-numbers printed in.

The advantage is obvious. People will read, as we have already said, what is placed before them, especially if it is recommended to them not offensively. A library with 5,000 excellent and interesting books well catalogued under subjects, and 5,000 other inferior books catalogued in the most perfunctory way, and gradually withdrawn as they wore out, would find more and more demand for the better portion, and its circulation would be of much higher quality than that of a library of equal size consisting of ordinary books with an ordinary catalogue. We say nothing of the saving in expense to any library in having so large a part of its catalogue made to its hand—a saving which would outweigh any inconvenience that could arise from the use of two catalogues in the library. Except 'Poole's Index,' no more promising kind of coöperation has been suggested by the Library Association.

ÉDOUARD PAILLERON AND HIS PLAYS.

PARIS, NOV. 10.

THE most successful comedy of the last season was "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" of M. Pailleron; and judging by the representations of the piece which are taking place at the present moment, it has a chance of going through a second season. The piece is wonderfully well played at the Théâtre-Français; it is amusing, it is clever, it has parts which remind you of the "Précieuses ridicules," and other parts which remind you of the "Mariage de Figaro." The public sees known personages under some of the names, and naturally delights in these "personalities." The piece is as light as possible, and of the thinnest texture, but it is full of life, of "bons mots," of such words as everybody can repeat in daily intercourse. The chief cause of its success, however, lies perhaps in the fact that by its very lightness, its gayety, its anti-pedantic tendency, it is in contrast with the last pieces of Alexandre Dumas. The long tirades of Dumas, the novelist, the renovator of morals, the serious argumentizer on love, on divorce, on natural children, have fairly tired the public. We have had enough of all these serious analyzers of human passions; of the doctrinaires of the demi-monde, of the *vibrions*, of the fatality of vice, of the heredity of passion, and so on. We have now an old-fashioned comedy in modern costume, in which nobody is profound, and the only people who pretend to be profound are ridiculous and ridiculed; in which love is simple, natural, almost vulgar, and which does not pretend to make new laws for a new world—a commonplace comedy, which keeps us laughing for a few hours, and sends us home contented, not over-fatigued, and gives us the comfortable feeling that we belong to a society which is not rotten, nor absurdly organized, nor threatened with dissolution. A play of Dumas's has always something apocalyptic; M. Pailleron's have no "tendency" whatever—they are mere photographs.

M. Pailleron, who has become very practical and, it may be said, prosaic, began, however, as a poet. His debut in the literary world was a volume of verses, "Les Parasites," published in 1861. As he was then already twenty-seven years old, he is therefore now forty-seven years old. His verses were satirical; this *bourgeois de Paris*—for he is a son of Paris—attacked the bourgeois class with studied violence. There

was not much sincerity in these attacks; they were a little, as the French say, *voutées*:

"Bourgeois, produit bâtarde d'un accès de cynisme,
De la liberté lassé avec la royauté,
C'est toi qui posas sur le patriotisme
L'étouffoir étouffant de la cupidité!"

There was, perhaps, not much more reality in Pailleron's effusions when he announced the end of war, the political millennium; when he spoke of liberty and fraternity. There was already at that time a part of himself which could judge the other half; there was irony in him even when he played with the great words of the revolutionary school. There was wisdom in his folly; there was also much healthiness concealed under his poetical sufferings. One cannot pity him much when he speaks of his desires, his vague hopes, his ardent dreams.

In 1869 he published a second volume of verses, now forgotten, like the first. 'Amours et Haines' marks no real progress. "La Morte" is the best piece in this volume, and is inferior to the minor poems of our new school. Curiously enough, the best part of M. Pailleron in this new volume is the "bourgeois." As a husband, as a father, he finds natural touches; he has in fact become a bourgeois. He can speak with conviction of the natural emotions of man; he speaks now of love, of conjugal love, of paternal love, with a certain sense of reality. We can only find fault with him for trying at times to say too much; for becoming too eloquent and too communicative.

Pailleron had not found his path as a poet. He was, he is, essentially a dramatist. There is no lyric vein in his cheerful, objective nature. He has the brightness of a mirror; he can reflect the outside world with a wonderful exactitude, but he has none of the characteristics of the poet. His début on the stage was a short act, "Le Parasite," written in 1860 for the Odéon, the Providence of the young dramatist, the second Théâtre-Français. It was an imitation of the "Ciguë" of Augier, in the false Greek style which was for a time the fashion. This style, which originated in the plays of Menander and Plautus, is now quite abandoned. When the "Ciguë" appeared, it was considered as the sign of a reaction of the Classical schools against the Romantic. But the Romantics have it all their own way now. The cleverest imitations of Plautus and Terence are wanting in life, in reality; they are as cold as the classic school of the Empire. In the "Mur mitoyen," written in 1861, Pailleron becomes modern; it is a clever "bluette." "Le Dernier Quartier" (1863) has remained in what is called the repertory of the French Theatre; it is still played as a "lever de rideau." It is in the form which is best suited for Pailleron's talents—clever conversations, not much intrigue, a bit of sentiment mixed up with much Parisian wit—something like a delicate breakfast or a light supper. The "Dernier Quartier" is the last quarter of a honeymoon spent in the country. *Raymond*, the husband, is happy, but so tired of his happiness that he has but one idea, that of returning to Paris in order to see a certain Caroline; he learns in time that Caroline is not faithful to his memory, and becomes reconciled with his wife, who had thought him already unfaithful, and who threatened to separate from him. Can there be anything more ordinary than this subject, more commonplace? It would even be distasteful if *Raymond* was in earnest; but he is not in earnest. The whole thing is a succession of agreeable nothings; it amuses, it makes you laugh; and, strangely enough, at times, it almost moves you.

There are several pieces by Pailleron which have this very light texture. In one, the "Autre Motif," a lady, separated from her husband, and consequently much courted, dis-

courages all her lovers by saying to them at the critical moment, "I am a widow." The adorers invariably run away. The husband dies; a serious lover goes to our lady and reveals his flame. She says again, "Je suis veuve." "I know it," says he. You can imagine the rest: they explain themselves and get married. "L'Étincelle" is often played, and it is impossible to imagine anything better played than it is by the three personages, Delaunay and Mlle. Croizette and Samary. It is again a "proverb," after the fashion of the lightest of Musset's. "Petite Pluie" (1875) and "Pendant le Bal" (1881) belong to the same order of plays: they are "situations" rather than comedies—pictures not of a life or of a year, but of a moment. They are, so to speak, impressions, and, in that sense belong to the modern impressionist school, with this difference, that the impressionist painters care especially for the truth, and Pailleron's truth is as artificial as possible: it is a sort of truth which does not come out of a well, but out of a rich boudoir, furnished in the best fashion. Pailleron has been eminently successful in this genre, but he has had a higher ambition—he has tried his hand at the great comedy. He wrote a sort of socialistic drama called "Les Faux Ménages" (in 1869). The "faux ménages" are unions which are neither acknowledged by the church nor by the law; they are the "false marriages" which necessarily are the rivals, the enemies, of real marriage. Such a subject is better fitted for Alexandre Dumas fils, who delights in all social maladies. Pailleron's play left on me a rather painful impression, such as you have when you have been without any artistic profit in a very dirty city. It was only a semi-success. "Hélène" (1872) was a total failure. I remember seeing the first representation of it. Pailleron has such a reputation for luck that nobody would believe in a defeat; but the defeat was real, and I confess having completely forgotten this unfortunate *tragédie bourgeoise*.

Pailleron is very intelligent; he understood at once that he had made an error, and he returned to real comedy. He cannot make us cry, but he can make us laugh. "Le Second Mouvement," "Le Monde où l'on s'amuse," "L'Âge ingrat," "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," written between 1865 and 1881, mark a great progress. Pailleron has decidedly found his manner: he throws three or four intrigues into one; shows us a sort of quick succession of *tableaux vivants*, not motionless and silent, but full of life, of movement, of animation, of agitation. His men and women all belong to modern Paris; they are, morally speaking, in a perpetual electric light—they live in a sort of irradiation. They may be in love or not in love, young or old, they are always "on the move." The light touches of these pieces are made with a sure hand; there is here and there something coarse, something even vulgar; but vulgarity and coarseness are necessary shades in social pictures. The most delightful feature of these plays is their utter modesty; Pailleron has no object; he evidently does not believe in the "holy mission of the theatre"; he does not mean to alter the "Code Napoléon," to give us a new moral standard. He has left all these ambitions to others; he contents himself with amusing the public. This want of pretension is very refreshing at a time when even the actors and actresses think themselves the regenerators of society; when you hear all sorts of phrases about the mission of art, the mission of the press. The "Monde où l'on s'ennuie" marks the revolt of the Parisian *esprit* against pedantry: it might be called "Les Précieux ridicules."

Correspondence.

THE YALE JUBILEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The account of the New York Yale Jubilee published in the daily papers ought to have shamed every sober graduate of the University. What purported to be a report of the final address was, if not utterly inane, disgusting in abuse of a distinguished friend and benefactor of another university, whose modesty and unexampled generosity are worthy of an ideal New York Yale alumnus. A hope that this reported address might be forgotten as a bibulous "overflow of vulgarity" extemporized at the end of a too convivial jubilee, is destroyed by "A Yale Graduate" in your last number. That his verdict may not stand in your columns as the common verdict of Yale graduates is, I trust, a sufficient excuse for this letter. S. I. SMITH.

NEW HAVEN, Dec. 2, 1881.

[The most remarkable thing about the "jubilee" was not that college graduates should have produced it. College education does not make a man over, and there will always be a considerable number of university men whose standard of fun does not rise above that of a party of "Bowery boys" in a cheap oyster-saloon. The most surprising thing in the performance was that a graduate could have been found who was willing to report his Alma Mater's shame for a newspaper, and publish it as a charming *jeu d'esprit*.—Ed. NATION.]

MRS. DALL'S CALIFORNIAN EXPERIENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to say in your columns that the "desolation and dreariness" which my cousins turned into "delight" had nothing to do with the charming town of Stockton? I thought I had chaunted the praises of that place with sufficient emphasis. The "desolation" was the desolation of dining-rooms and restaurants all along the way, against which every invalid should be warned. When I saw what your critic said about "volcanic limestone" it seemed to me impossible that I could have used these words without some explanation of the manner in which they came to me, but on referring to the pages I find your critic in the right. At Denver the lovely building stone which attracted my attention was called "sandstone," and I was told it was "boulder rock," or brought from the neighborhood of that town. None of the guide-books told anything more about it. At Colorado Springs I found it had been used for the college buildings, and I told President Tenney about my perplexity and asked what it was. He replied that it was a "volcanic limestone," which had been used by the Spaniards in Mexico three hundred years ago. It is hard, never crumbles, and will support no vegetation whatever. Several times after this I heard this same adjective applied to the stone. One person said it was a limestone deposited by geysers, but it does not look as if that had happened. I tried to bring a specimen away, but it was too heavy.

Will you allow me to add in this connection that the publication of this volume is teaching me what may be a much-needed lesson in regard to mental perspective? In a volume of 430 pages it is possible that fifteen may be devoted to statements which do not redound to the credit of the fruit, the manners, the food, or the emigrants whom I encountered. I supposed that if I stated things exactly as they happened, I could

not fail to give a true idea of them. I was not in the least annoyed by what I found, but I did not find what I had been told to expect. Should I, in order to produce a proper effect, have held back some of the trivial statements? I expected that critics would be interested in the new things, or perhaps I should say the untold things, about the Indians, the Mormons, and the Chinese, but their whole attention seems to be devoted to those which interested me so little that I could not have remembered them if I had not written them down at the time. Is this a fault in me or in the English language, which seems powerless to express what I enjoyed? or is it partly due to the surprise with which readers receive an account at variance with that given by persons who have made the whole journey with free passes? People usually go to California in winter. I went in summer; but it must be remembered that invalids must stay through the summer. In speaking of these things lately to a gentleman of much experience I was met by this inquiry: "We hear nothing but praises of California fruit and Chinese laundries. How is it that you are the first person to disenchant us in regard to both? It is very strange." To this I was able in reply to say what perhaps it is as well that a wider audience should hear:

"If you reflect, you will not think it so strange. The public who gave the reputation to California fruit was a public composed of miners, trappers, and emigrants—men who had been paying five dollars apiece for apples, and who naturally rejoiced over the juicy, though rather tasteless harvest. In the same way, the advent of the Chinese was a great blessing to men who had done their own washing and cooking for years. My own cousins, and many other persons whom I met, had been in California for thirty years. Many of them did not hesitate to say that they had never employed a Chinese servant, and all agreed as to the deficient flavor of the fruit when compared with that of New England."

It would be a comfort to authors if critics could remember that one may correct an error in spelling through six proofs and then have it reappear in the "cast," where it is somewhat difficult to throw it out in season for a first edition. Perhaps a proper system of apprenticeship, or something akin to it, in the printing houses, would be the best remedy for this.

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 25, 1881.

THE SITE OF HOMERIC TROY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The site of Homeric Troy, in spite of the excavations of Dr. Schliemann at Hissarlik, is as much as ever a disputed question among those who believe that the plot of the 'Iliad' rests upon an historic foundation. The topographical explorations which have been made in the Troad establish conclusively enough that there are but two places which can in any measure satisfy the conditions of the Homeric site—Hissarlik and Bunarbashi. There are serious obstacles against the exact identification of either of these places with the Troy of the 'Iliad'; but perhaps, as Grote says (edit. 1869, i., p. 324), "the mistake consists in applying to Homer, and to the Homeric siege of Troy, criticisms which would be perfectly just if brought to bear on the Athenian siege of Syracuse, as described by Thucydides, but which are not more applicable to the epic narrative than they would be to the exploits of Amadis or Orlando."

Professor A. H. Sayce, who is a zealous advocate of the views of Dr. Schliemann, says in his "Notes from Journeys in the Troad and Lycia" (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, i., page 75 et seq.): "If Troy ever existed, it could have only been

on the site of Hissarlik. There is no other site, at once so ancient, so commanding, and so conveniently situated near the sea, in the whole of the Troad." Mr. W. J. Stillman, on the other hand, in his interesting letter published in the *Nation* of May 5, 1881, affirms that "there is not an argument which can be brought in favor of Hissarlik which cannot equally be invoked in aid of Bunarbashi," and that "there are, in favor of the latter, many which are directly opposed to the former." Mr. Stillman cites, too, the work of Nicolaides on the topography and strategy of the 'Iliad,' and says that in it "the argument is elaborated with what seems to me incontestable success"; and, "with map in hand, every day's fighting is followed, with every personal movement, with an exactitude and consistency which are a curious instance of the observance of the unities in the poem—Bunarbashi being admitted as the site."

It is allowed by the majority of archaeologists of note that the so-called "Ilium Novum"—the Hellenic Ilium—was originally an Æolic settlement, which, after shifting its site several times, was finally established in the time of the Lydians—perhaps as late as the reign of Croesus—at Hissarlik (Professor R. C. Jebb, in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, ii., page 7, et seq., "Homeric and Hellenic Ilium"). It is not necessary to repeat here the arguments put forth by Professor Jebb in this important article, both for and against the possibility of identifying the mound of Hissarlik with the Troy of Homer. I will only add that it is established conclusively by Mr. Stillman in his letter to the *Nation*, and by Professor Jebb (at much greater length), in his article above alluded to, "that the belief that Homeric Troy had been utterly destroyed, and that the site had thenceforth remained desolate, formed an essential part of the Trojan legend, not merely in popular Greek rumor, but also in the view of those ancients whose treatment of tradition was more critical"; that in 332-330 B. C., as testified by an oration of Lycurgus, it was commonly believed that the site of Homeric Troy was still desolate, in accordance with the curses of its conquerors, and that consequently the Hellenic Ilium did not stand on the site of Troy.

The question may yet be decided by a more thorough archaeological investigation of Hissarlik and Bunarbashi than has heretofore been made. Toward the end of last September three members of the Expedition of the Archaeological Institute of America at Assos—Messrs. Diller (the geologist of the Expedition), C. H. Walker, and William C. Lawton—made a summary examination of the Trojan plain, under the kind guidance of Mr. Frank Calvert, the well-known archaeologist. Mr. Lawton has written to the president of the Institute a very complete account of this excursion; and some extracts from his letter, relating to Bunarbashi and to Hissarlik, will be read with interest while we await the publication of the full report of the party, with their admirable plans and sketches—several of which are already in the possession of the Institute.

The maximum length of the Acropolis of Bunarbashi, inside the walls, is 190 metres. Von Hahn has run ditches along the outside of all the walls on the western side, and at the eastern gate. He has also traced the whole outer wall of the rectangular building within the exterior fortification. The oldest piece of wall is at the western extremity of the Acropolis; this wall is inclined, built of large, irregular stones, and is evidently the base of a tower. From here to the main gate (at the northwestern corner), the courses are quite regular, and of squared stones. This gateway is so choked with rubbish that further excavations will be necessary to deter-

mine its exact plan. Beyond this gate runs from west to east the best surviving piece of Hellenic wall, forming part of the northern wall of the Acropolis. Von Hahn has excavated it to the depth of about two metres, but he has not reached the foundations at any point. Not far from the principal gate, upon this north wall of the Acropolis, are the remains of a second tower, commanding a smaller gate. The foundations of a third tower, resting on the natural rock, can be traced at the northeast corner. The rest of the wall of the Acropolis has not been excavated; but much of it can be followed on the surface. The southern side of the Acropolis retains no indication of having been strongly fortified; but it bears unmistakable remains of terraces, flights of steps cut in the rock, and house walls—which last may have afforded sufficient protection, as this side of the hill is almost inaccessible from below. At the eastern end the natural rock crops up frequently, but toward the southwest the accumulation of earth appears to be great. The large rectangular building about the middle of the Acropolis has never been excavated inside. The two adjacent circular structures on the lower plateau, just within the exterior fortification wall on the west, have been excavated to the depth of half a metre, by Von Hahn, at their point of tangency. They now consist merely of light stone walls, with a slight depression within. The remains of the fortification wall, which is so completely ruined as to resemble nothing more than a low earthwork, extend in a direction 20° west of north, across the neck which connects the rocky projection forming the Acropolis with the heights behind. This wall can be traced for a distance of 130 metres.

On the next ridge to the southwest of Bunarbashi, Mr. Calvert has opened graves made in scanty earth, between the outcropping rocks, and discovered in them large jars like those found at Hissarlik, containing skeletons, and, often, Hellenic vases. There are, also, slight traces here of prehistoric walls. From this ridge the line of the Dardanelles is visible, and the stately peak of Samothrakè looms up over Imbros.

Along the edge of the northern ridge of the Acropolis, as it descends toward the northwest, are many tumuli consisting of heaps of stones. Attentive study reveals, in several of these, traces of walls—probably house-walls.

Here all signs of human life end. The long, gentle slope of nearly a mile, descending toward the village of Bunarbashi, is dotted with the outcrops of native rock; gravel occurs, but there is no trace of walls nor of pottery in the earth. This whole space must be imagined encircled by walls, if we attempt to apply Homer's description to this spot; for the Scæan gate certainly opened on the plain. A prehistoric city of so great size has never yet, I think, been found. Such an arrangement would, it is true, give room enough for the 7,000 or 8,000 Trojan citizens under arms ('Iliad,' ii., 123-131), and their 40,000 guest allies ('Iliad,' viii., 562-3); but I can more easily believe with Thucydides, that 'Homer exaggerates, as poets naturally do.' [This difficulty regarding the size of the ancient city is raised also by Professor Sayce, in his article above referred to: "The scholars of the last century, believing as they did that the Troy of Homer was like one of the great cities of Europe, naturally fixed upon the heights of Bunarbashi as realizing their ideal. Here we have a large-sized hill, or rather the last spur of the range of Ida, which would have embraced within its circumference a city as large as Edinburgh, and needs a long and weary climb to scale its summit."] "

On September 21 we visited Hissarlik. It is the dreariest spot in the world; the only rest for

the eye is in the lines of Greek wall along the upper part of the trenches. Mr. Calvert thinks that Dr. Schliemann now regrets the reckless way in which Hellenic remains were buried deep under the earth from his trenches. In fact, Mr. Calvert says that the Doctor intends to dig for the other metopes of the Apollo temple, of which one, bearing a striking relief of four horses advancing directly toward the spectator, was found by accident half a metre below the surface.

"The amount of work which has been done at Hissarlik is enormous. The heart of a great hill has been cut out. The strongest impression one has is of the squalor and pettiness of the flimsy walls of the 'Burnt City,' compared with the Ilios of the poet. His dullest line has more life in it than all these stones and dirt. There are lying about striking marble fragments from Hellenic temples; one, in particular, is a block bearing a triglyph and a metope representing the issue of a single combat. The figure of the slayer is much broken and weathered away. The prostrate man, according to Mr. Walker, wears Persian trousers. Before the little church of Kalifatli is a well-preserved Ionic capital; and within is a mosaic pavement from Hissarlik containing Europa and the Bull, a lion, and other subjects.

"From Hissarlik, Gargaros is in sight, but at a great distance. Tenedos is plainly seen, and is quite prominent enough to hide a large fleet. Samothraké—the watch-tower of Poseidon—rises majestically above the reddish-brown slopes of Imbros.

"September 23 was spent in an unsuccessful search for evidence as to the alleged building out of the shore-line since Priam's—or Homer's—day. It is clear that Sigeion, Hissarlik, and Rhoiteion are the extremities of three surviving remnants of a general plateau in which the valleys of the Mendere and Doumbrek have been scooped out by the action of water. It is equally clear that the present surface of the plain is alluvial. The weight of evidence is against any such rapid extension of the shore-line as Strabo claims. The most satisfactory evidence would be the discovery near the present shore-line of some human monument of undoubted antiquity. Mr. Diller saw upon the low peninsula of Koum-Kaleh some small projecting bits of limestone, which make it probable that it has a solid foundation of rock. If, however, as Virchow says, it is a mere sand-spit, it may very well be of recent formation. The forces of river and strait are now in approximate equilibrium, and very little change of shore-line is in progress."

I am, sir, yours very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

No. 244 EAST THIRTEENTH STREET, NEW YORK,
November 28, 1881.

THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT ADVANCING BACKWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most astonishing things connected with the history of the Post-office Department is the silent manner in which the wholesale eradication, by the present Postmaster-General, of long-established postal routes has been received. It can be accounted for in a great measure by the fact that it was regarded as a blow at the huge swindles of the Star-route gang, and this to some extent it may have been. But Mr. James, in his sweeping and ill-considered measure, has cut off the innocent with the guilty, and the brunt of the punishment has fallen on an undeserving public.

When you consider how important at the present day is the receipt of a mail to the husbandman residing in any part of this busy country,

how essential it is, not only as an assistance to his maintenance, but as a solace to his hours of rest; that it is to him what the opera and other amusements are to the denizen of the cities, you can begin to appreciate the deprivation sustained. But the slaughter has been by no means confined to the husbandman; the village and country merchant, the stock-raiser and trader, to whom daily market reports are as relatively essential as to the city merchant, are equal sufferers.

By the Postmaster-General's order, at one blow, mail facilities, extending over thousands of miles, that existed before the birth of men now past middle age, have been destroyed, or materially impaired; and while this curtailment of the barest necessary mail has been going on in the rural districts, the city people have had their mails brought to their very doors twice or more each day, and that at a cost far exceeding a fair compensation for carrying all the mails on the discontinued Star-routes.

Do not understand me as condemning the city delivery. I allude to it to show how glaring is the injustice done to the countrymen. The injury inflicted on the business of the whole country is much greater than the unreflecting would suppose, and the injury, particularly to the newspaper interest, is so marked and so direct that I am surprised at the long-continued silence of the press.

I unfortunately live on a Star-route that was blessed with a daily mail forty years ago, now reduced to three mails a week. This route is over a superb road thirty-five miles in length, connecting railroad towns and through a country teeming with wealth. It is the only supply to six post-offices, and contributes to three others. That our route was punished for participating in Star-route frauds cannot be said. On the contrary, it stubbornly set its face against the effort to "expedite" its mails. Two mails a day were actually ordered when expediting was at its zenith; but there being no connections at the termini, the general ridicule on the whole route was too great for the gang, and the fraudulent attempt was reluctantly abandoned. Soon thereafter the carrier concluded to leave his place of departure a half-hour before the arrival of the mails he had undertaken to carry. The result was that our mails were unnecessarily delayed twenty-four hours. Detrimental as this palpable breach of contract was to the public service, the most persistent efforts for many months could obtain no redress. After the meeting of Congress, our Representative took the matter in hand, and the wrong was at once righted. Hardly was this adjusted when our delivery was reduced, as before stated, to three times a week. That we have been made to suffer by some official for not assisting in the expediting project is reasonably certain, but that Mr. James has had such a motive is not for a moment believed. If, however, Mr. James could hear the execrations heaped on his name all over the country, it would doubtless astonish him, and might perhaps be of more real benefit than the plaudits he has been the recipient of, for his endeavors to make the Department self-sustaining.

Could not the Nation bring to the attention of those in authority the fact that a self-supporting mail department is not an unmixed blessing; that the two-cent postage, instead of the present rate, is not a burning desire, but that a decent regard for the rights of that vast majority of our people who dwell neither in cities nor on railroads, would be of more benefit to the country at large than either of these reforms; and that the memory of the man who should establish a permanent system that would bring a daily mail within the reach of every inhabitant, where at all practi-

cable, would be cherished with more respect than that of Sir Rowland Hill? A SUBSCRIBER.
CENTRAL KENTUCKY, November 28, 1881.

OVERLAND RAILROAD RATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since the publication of my letter on overland railroad rates in the *Nation* of August 11, Mr. Charles F. Adams, Jr., has called my attention to the origin of the system of special freight contracts and unlawful discrimination in freight charges, as set forth in the report of the Government directors of the Union Pacific Railroad for the year ending June 30, 1878. I quote from page 15 of the document:

"In the month of July last, a sudden announcement was made that the tariffs on through-freighting business over the Pacific roads had been altered, and that, while the classification of certain articles had been changed, the rates upon others had been advanced from 50 to 100 per cent. The reason of this movement, which naturally excited surprise as well as indignation among those affected by it, was not at first apparent. It was, however, soon learned. It was purely strategic. The company did not really propose to raise its tariff rates; on the contrary, it was ready to slightly reduce them; but it did propose to take full advantage of its position to secure as much as possible of the transcontinental business. As a first step toward this, it practically did away with its open tariff, by the very simple process referred to. Under the open tariff, at the old rates, the larger business firms dealing between the two coasts had a choice of routes—that by water and that by rail. They, in practice, availed themselves of this option by sending their coarser freights, or those in regard to which time in delivery was immaterial, by water, at the lower rates; while the more costly wares, or those requiring immediate delivery, were forwarded overland. The object of the Union Pacific was to put a stop to this practice. This they did by largely raising their freights, which put an effectual stop to shipments under the open tariff, while, at the same time, they offered to all the large firms which would contract to make their shipments wholly by land, special rates at a reduction even from those in force before the change. It was thus a distinct step backward; for it amounted to the abandonment of a published and open tariff in favor of a system of private special contracts.

"This move was, therefore, not only one of great importance, but it was open to serious objections. It was made, not by a petty local road, nor by a competing trunk line, but by a great, subsidized, continental thoroughfare. As such, it might naturally be inferred that it was made only after ample consideration, and with the authority of the full board of directors. It is, however, a fact singularly illustrative of the absence of that sense of public responsibility in which the policy of the Union Pacific is now shaped, that this measure, which practically put in irons the transcontinental business of the country, was devised by two freight agents, was never, before being publicly announced, submitted for consideration even to the executive committee of the board of directors, much less to the full board, and was finally put in force, to the utter surprise of the public, on the verbal authority, so far as can be ascertained, of the president and a single director.

"It is unnecessary to comment on such a method of corporate management. It speaks for itself. Meanwhile, so far as the measure is concerned, the objections to it are apparent. The through-business over the Union Pacific is mainly done by large houses. This is natural enough, for such houses can, of course, do it most cheaply. The measure under discussion, however, made it impossible that this business should be done by any but the large houses. They have special contracts covering it at less than the published tariff rates. More than this, it locks up, in secrecy, transactions which more than all others should be public. The special contracts may be equal as between shippers, or they may not. The directors have every reason to believe that they are, but they none the less are lacking in that element of publicity which in such matters will always remain the one real safeguard against discrimination."

The contracts here referred to and so justly condemned did not contain the "boycotting" clause quoted in my former letter; they merely bound the merchant to transport all his freight by rail—viz.: "all goods purchased by or for

and shipped by or consigned to him by his procurement, directly or indirectly, or with his previous knowledge or consent"; he was still free to deal in goods which had reached here by sea, though he could not import them so himself. Next year or the year following, the "bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by" clause was introduced, which "boycotted" all goods not imported by rail, so far as the railroad companies' customers were concerned. They were forbidden to buy, sell, deal in, or handle them. Last January the railroad companies gave another turn to the screw, and introduced a clause which boycotted not only the goods, but the importers. The merchant who holds a freight contract with this company is "firmly bound" not to sell or deliver his goods to any one who is in the habit of importing otherwise than by rail. To show that there is no mistake about this humiliating exaction, I enclose on a separate slip the text of the covenant, as well as that of the corresponding clause in the contracts of the preceding year. They are clipped from the columns of the *Grocer and Country Merchant*, a local trade journal which published them, with a vigorous protest, at the time they were forced upon our merchants. The space of the *Nation* is too valuable to insert them *in extenso* here; but let them go into your advertising columns with a note of reference. They divide the importing merchants of the whole Pacific coast into two classes—viz., those who bind themselves to import exclusively by rail and those who refuse to do so; these two classes are forbidden by the railroad company to have any dealings with one another.

I make no comment on this proceeding, for I have no language equal to it; but I hope that the *Nation* will do so, for I have reason to believe that it will not be without effect. I pass to another item of railroad management.

Sugar refining was introduced here in 1855, and soon grew to be a large and important industry. Even paying duty on raw stocks imported from Manila, it was found possible to manufacture here at a profit, and compete with Eastern goods to the extent of the refined sugars and syrups consumed on this coast. The price was of course regulated by the cost of laying down New York sugars here. The Hawaiian treaty removed the duty from our raw stocks, and gave our refiners a clear advantage of two and a half cents per pound over their Eastern rivals. Still, Eastern crushed sugar had a slight preference, and could always be found in our market and at substantially the same price as domestic. Last January all this suddenly changed, and Eastern sugars disappeared from the market. The reason assigned was that the railroad companies had raised the freight on refined sugar from one cent per pound to two—a rate which forbade importations. The reader may be surprised that they should thus impose a protective duty (for that is evidently what it is) so high as to cut off their own revenue from the trade; but, though strong protectionists, they are not such fools as that. It now comes out that they received a full consideration for their action. The *Chronicle* of this city has brought out the fact, and it is uncontradicted, that the advance in freight is the result of a bargain with the principal refiner here, thinly disguised under the form of a transportation contract,* whereby, for a consideration of \$100,000, they consent to impose this prohibitory duty on Eastern sugars for the current year. The *Chronicle* publishes statistics of sugar imported from the islands, etc., to show that through the operation of the treaty

the Government loses about two million dollars per annum, while by the action of the railroad companies the people of this coast are mulcted about eight hundred thousand more in the enhanced cost of sugar. Its attack is mainly on the treaty and the refiner. Papers in the opposite interest defend the action of the railroad companies by the usual protectionist arguments, encouragement of home industry, etc. The whole public is, however, as it seems to me, more interested in a question back of this, and which I venture to think lies at the bottom of the whole railroad problem—viz.: *What right has any railroad company to impose a protective duty on sugar or any other commodity imported from one State into another?* And what is the system of classification adopted by all our railroad companies as the basis of freight charges, but a system of protective duties under another name? The overland companies, by their scandalous imposition of this duty on sugar, have brought this question squarely to the front, and incidentally suggested the true remedy for such abuses. The latter, if you will permit, I should like to discuss hereafter.

JOHN S. DOYLE.

SAN FRANCISCO, November 23, 1881.

Notes.

WE understand that the American subscription to the proposed monument to Severn, the friend of Keats, has not equalled expectations. The time for closing it is near at hand. Mr. R. W. Gilder, of the Century Company, Union Square, New York, will receive and forward any sums.

—A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce a compilation by Wm. Oland Bourne, 'Now I Lay Me Down to Sleep; or, The Prayer of Childhood in Literature and Song.'—We learn from the *Academy* that Mr. W. M. Conway, 2 Harcourt Buildings, Temple, London, E. C., proposes to issue by subscription a series of photographic reproductions of the earliest works of wood-cutting in the Netherlands, the so-called block-books, which usher in the art of printing. Some twenty-eight are embraced in Mr. Conway's scheme. Yearly or half-yearly volumes will be issued, with explanatory pamphlets, at cost price—say, from twelve to twenty-one shillings per volume.—The fifteenth annual exhibition of the American Water Color Society will open at the Academy of Design, on January 30, 1882, and close on Feb. 25. Works will be received from January 12 to 14. The secretary's address is 51 West 10th Street.—The *Sanitary Engineer*, which began as a monthly, and has latterly been a fortnightly publication, will enter upon its fifth volume as a weekly, a step which implies gratifying evidence to its conductors that their efforts have been appreciated.—In a memoir of the late Benjamin Peirce, published in the current *Essex Institute Hist. Coll.* (xviii., 7, 8, 9), the striking fact is exhibited that this eminent scientist "had no less than twenty-five ancestors, heads of families, known to have been settled in New England before 1663, at least twenty of them before 1640." One of these was Lawrence Southwick, husband of the Cassandra celebrated in Whittier's verse.

—Readers of "A Colonial Monastery," in the December *Scribner's*, will be interested in Mr. S. W. Pennypacker's account of the Dunker Book of Martyrs, 'Der blutige Schau-Platz oder Martyrer Spiegel der Tauffs-Gesinten oder wehrlosen Christen, etc. Ephrata in Pennsylvania, Drucks und Verlags der Bruderschaft anno 1748'—"a massive folio of 1,512 pages," now extremely scarce. "Among the literary achievements of the Germans of Pennsylvania it surpasses, though eight (sic) years later, the great quarto Bible of Saur, the first in

America, printed at Germantown in 1743, which for nearly half a century had no English rival."

—The Christmas number of the *Publishers' Weekly* is a picture-book in itself, apart from its utility as a guide to holiday purchases for young and old.—Among the characteristic publications of this season is Lockwood, Brooks & Co.'s "American Poets' Calendar" for 1882, with quotations for every day in the year.—A very tasteful pamphlet report of the Exeter Hall meeting commemorative of President Garfield has been issued, with a fine portrait, by Mr. B. F. Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, London.—In *Le Livre* for November, English readers will at once be attracted to M. Ernest Chesneau's amiable but not very profound or well-proportioned review of English caricature. Facsimiles, after Hogarth, Rowlandson, John Leech, and Kate Greenaway, adorn the text. In his letter from Brussels, M. Léon Degeorge announces that a complete but very brief and ill-printed catalogue of the Plantin Museum has been published by the curator. He well says that, under the circumstances, a work of art was called for.—Parts 27, 28 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann) contain a railway and steamship map of the German Empire and adjacent countries, with political maps of Austria-Hungary, India, and Central Asia, Persia and Afghanistan, and of South America (quite new), together with a chart of the globe's winds, currents, and rainfall. The edition is now nearly complete.—Dr. Oscar Lenz's journey from Tangier to Timbuctoo and Senegambia, and General Schindler's journeys in Southern Persia in 1879, are described, with accompanying maps, in Nos. 94-95 of the *Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society* (L. W. Schmidt).—Prof. G. Ebers seems to have found novel-writing a more desirable task than the completion of his 'Egypt and the Pentateuch,' the first volume of which was published in 1868 and the second is still to come. A second edition of his book of travels, 'Durch Gosen zum Sinai,' is announced; but at the same time a new novel from his pen is issued, 'Die Frau Bürgermeisterin' (The Mayor's Wife), which presumably deals with matters less Egyptological than his previous contributions to light literature.

—In Dr. Hayes's reprint of his 'Pictures of Arctic Travel' (Carleton), we have, not a narrative of travel, but three pen-pictures of humanity and nature as they presented themselves to him in Greenland. Of the three, that which has for its subject the glaciers is by all odds the best. The topic will bear a good many superlatives without producing the effect of incongruity, and its treatment here seems to be natural and fitting. The "Doctor" is very unreal in appearance, whatever be the foundation of fact in the episode suggesting it, and the "Savage" is too weakly sketched to make any very definite impression. The little book is beautifully printed, with a striking if somewhat inartistic cover, whose designer should apply to some sailor-man for a lesson on knots.—In the number of the *Nation* for July 28, 1881, the requisites for a useful handbook of astronomy for amateurs were pointed out, with particular reference to a new edition of Smyth's 'Celestial Cycle,' which had recently appeared. It was there stated as the opinion of the writer that the 'Celestial Objects' of the Rev. T. W. Webb was a work admirably adapted to the end proposed, and of small bulk and low price. These remarks were based on the third edition of Mr. Webb's work, which had been long and favorably known. Since that time a fourth edition has been printed in England and in New York (Industrial Publication Company). An examination of this edition shows it to be an improvement upon its predecessor.

* The transaction is alleged to be in the shape of a contract to transport for the refiner 5,000,000 lbs. of sugar at two cents per lb. Of course they could not charge any dealer a less rate than that voluntarily paid by so large a customer, who pays his freight and is not at all particular as to the transportation of the goods!

The chief changes have been made in the addition of some 1,500 new objects to the lists given in the third edition, and in a thorough revision of the text. As far as we have seen, these additions are extremely well chosen, and the list of interesting objects given at the end of the work covers nearly all those which "common telescopes" can be advantageously used upon. Many of these objects have been personally examined by Mr. Webb himself, and in other cases his notes are from the original sources. The practical instructions are especially valuable to the amateur. The whole character of the work can be summed up in one word: it is eminently judicious; and this quality gives it a weight not usually belonging to works of its class. It is one of the few books which no observer, amateur or professional, can well afford to dispense with.—*Scribner's Magazine* has now its 'General Index' (Q. P. Index, Bangor, Me.), on the plan of its immediate predecessors. The 'Annual Q. P. Index,' which we have already described, is announced on a fly-leaf for January 15.—The Rev. George E. Merrill's 'Story of the Manuscripts' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) gives a clear and interesting account of the most important manuscript copies of the New Testament, their age so far as known, their characteristics, the ways of their making and preservation, and the discovery of those not known till recently—this last being what we may call the romance and adventure of Biblical criticism. It has several engraved illustrations, brief biographies, and a good index. Not claiming any critical authority, it is not a legitimate subject of criticism as to its assertions on points doubtful. Its information on matters of known fact is timely and accurate. It says a good word for the Revised Version. Its point of view is given in the following sentence: "All the writings of the New Testament were completed, and in possession of the churches, at the close of the first century"; which is given without qualification or remark.

—The annual report of the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia for the last academic year shows that, since the war, private benefactions to that institution have amounted to \$440,000, a sum exceeding by \$110,000 the whole amount of annuities paid to it by the State since 1865. It thus appears that Mr. Jefferson's hope of promoting the higher education through a combination of public and private munificence has been practically realized. The "Leander McCormick Observatory" is now in process of erection upon the mountain-site originally selected for astronomical observation by the "Father of the University."—The annual report of Acting-President Frieze to the Board of Regents of the University of Michigan is largely taken up with his favorite scheme of making the end of the Sophomore Year in the Literary Department a point of departure for the various University courses in science, medicine, political science (a newly established school), etc. The question is, we believe, one on which the Faculty have divided with a good deal of feeling, and President Frieze foresees that the East will criticise his proposal as tending to lower standards of professional training and of University degrees (which his system would award after five years' residence at the University). More or less openly, the report is a protest against the applicability of Harvard's standards for post-graduate matriculation to the University of a frontier, new, and sparsely-settled State.—The Board of Trustees of Columbia College, last May, adopted a scheme reorganizing the instruction in modern languages, and supplementing the undergraduate course with a post-graduate course of two years. This is now being put in execution by Prof. Charles Sprague Smith.

—The following note appears in *Potter's American Monthly* for December. That the editor (to say nothing of the contributor and his integrity) should never have encountered Mr. Hale's famous little story, is an amusing proof of the distance which separates Boston from Philadelphia:

"A Man without a Country." The above article is furnished us by one of our contributors, who translated it from the German. Never having seen the article in print before in this country, he requests its publication for the benefit of those of our readers who also may never have heard or known of the facts stated. The name of the author is not furnished."

—Akin to the topic which we have discussed elsewhere, as to furnishing the young and unlettered with proper guides to the use of our public libraries, is the need of supplementing the serious part of our lyceum courses with suggestions for private study and investigation in the lines in which an interest has been awakened. An example of a short, well-selected bibliography of this sort has just been afforded by the Peabody Institute, of Baltimore, which has published a fly-leaf indicating "a short course of reading in connection with Mr. Freeman's lectures on the English people in their three homes." To the books enumerated is appended a sign of their being procurable at the Peabody, Johns Hopkins, Mercantile, and Maryland Historical Society libraries. The list is annotated to some extent, and does not err by formidable excess of citations. We hope to see this become a regular feature of the Peabody Institute's lecture courses, and receive the flattery of imitation by the Lowell Institute in Boston, and by all other established courses of the higher grade. Apropos of Dr. Freeman, we have heard the wish expressed that he might abandon his written lectures in favor of free and informal talks with his audiences.

—It is a pleasure to be able once in a while to say a good word for Mr. Mapleson's performances at the Academy of Music. The famous manager may be looked upon as a sort of æsthetic chemist, who gathers his heterogeneous artistic materials from all parts of the globe, mixes them in various proportions, and then ascertains how a New York audience will "react" on the compound. Occasionally, when the mixture is not of the proper sort, the reaction consists in a gradual evacuation of the auditorium before the end of the performance, as on Monday week, when "William Tell" was given. In the performance of "Aida," however, on the following Wednesday, the vocal material was of excellent quality, and the result was that a large and fascinated audience remained until the last note had been sung, a few minutes before midnight. Verdi's "Aida" is not only dramatically but musically the queen of all Italian operas, and in listening to it as interpreted by such artists as Galassi, Campanini, and Mlle. Rossini, the audience gets an idea of what an operatic performance on the Continent of Europe is like. If Mlle. Rossini had appeared earlier in the season, several other débutantes, the public, and the critics might have been spared the mutual annoyance of making each other's acquaintance. Now that she is here, we hope she may be given every possible opportunity during the remaining three weeks of the opera season of renewing her triumph in "Aida." Mlle. Rossini's tones are of good quality, their color being neither too dull nor of too great metallic brilliancy, and if she could only get rid of her everlasting vibrato, which occasionally makes an actual trill of what should be a smooth note, she would rank among leading *prime donne*—provided, that is, she is able to make as favorable an impression in other rôles as in that of *Aida*. Her dramatic conception of the part is likewise of more than average merit, although it cannot be denied that she

could still benefit greatly by seeing that character as impersonated by Materna, the greatest living dramatic vocalist of her sex. Mlle. Cobiachchi, who also made her début on the same occasion, is another useful addition to Mr. Mapleson's company, and might advantageously take the places in some operas of several of her predecessors. Galassi was as good an *Amonasro* as we have ever seen, and Campanini sang beautifully. It is his misfortune that he does not look like an artist, and that his acting is so imperfect that he never allows one to forget that he is Campanini, the lyric tenor. An important feature in "Aida" is the ballet, which did some very creditable work, especially in the tableaux, which were formed more instantaneously and in better order than usual by the girls, while the black slave boys were even obliged to repeat their comic evolutions. Signor Arditì again proved his special sympathy for Verdi's opera by the good control he had secured of the orchestra, the chorus, and the brass band on the stage, whose several performances were better dovetailed than usual. "Aida" is in many parts a diluted and simplified "Lohengrin." It is brimful of fresh and delightful melodies, whose quaint, exotic intervals afford a pleasant contrast to the orthodox forms of Italian and German melody. Signor Arditì's orchestra does not contain such good material as some other orchestras in the city, but in "Aida" it succeeded in making a charming display of the brilliant hues produced by the alternation and varied combinations of string, wood-wind, and brass instruments. In introducing these changes in orchestral coloring Verdi was not guided, like Meyerbeer, by a mere desire for change and effect, but by a true dramatic instinct, which enabled him to find in each case that clang-tint which best harmonizes with the dramatic situation.

—The first piece on the programme of the Symphony Society last Saturday was Schubert's Quintet, op. 163, arranged for full orchestra by Dr. Damrosch. There has been so much said of late about the possible existence of a tenth symphony by Schubert that, had it not been announced that the present arrangement was made last summer, Dr. Damrosch would have subjected himself to the suspicion of trying to show that if the tenth symphony in question did not exist, it was easy enough to make one. Even those who may not have agreed with Dr. Damrosch's opinion that the quintet needs more than five instruments to display all its innate beauties, evidently felt grateful to him for making the experiment. At least the applause was very generous, and the conductor was recalled several times to bow his acknowledgments. Schubert was one of the greatest of all the masters of orchestration; and although he would very probably in many places have chosen different instrumental combinations from those heard on Saturday, others are so thoroughly in harmony with the character of the passage that it seems as if no other instruments could have equally well expressed it. Even if the experiment had not proved a success, there would have been no harm in it. A string quintet bears the same relation to an orchestral piece that a simple sketch does to an oil painting. If an artist should take an original sketch by a great master and paint it, the act would be justly looked upon as vandalism; but Dr. Damrosch's orchestral arrangement leaves the original quintet exactly as it was; and fastidious musicians who are apt to prefer a sketch to a full painting may still go on playing it as if the new version had never existed. The people as a whole will prefer the orchestral arrangement; and as it was Dr. Damrosch's aim to popularize the composition, his object was clearly attained. Saint-Saëns's fourth concerto for the piano, op.

44, followed as the second piece. Like the typical concerto of the Mozartean period, it has a short orchestral introduction before the piano enters; but in its general form it differs from the regular concerto very much as symphonic poems do from symphonies. The movements are fewer in number or more closely connected, and, what is particularly commendable, the whole composition is much shorter. Saint-Saëns never tires the hearer by diffuse thematic treatment. He puts his ideas in their most direct and effective form, and never before he has so carefully cut and polished them. This, combined with his thorough knowledge of all orchestral resources, constitutes the principal charm of his compositions. The piano part of the new concerto in the hands of Madame Schiller seemed to lack brilliancy and importance; and we happen to know that when played by the composer himself it is exceedingly sparkling and effective. Two Norwegian melodies for string orchestra, by Grieg, were charmingly played by the orchestra and gratefully received, especially the second. The peculiar northern flavor which pervades some of Grieg's other works is not conspicuous in these songs, which might have flowed from the pen of any German musician. Beethoven's Eighth Symphony brought the concert to a close.

GARFIELD'S WORDS.

Garfield's Words: Suggestive Passages from the Public and Private Writings of James Abram Garfield. Compiled by William Ralston Balch. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

DURING the last Presidential campaign a small volume of extracts from General Garfield's speeches was compiled as a sort of campaign document, but it never had any great success, and it is hardly likely that Mr. Balch's collection will attract much more attention. He has endeavored to select from the late President's speeches, addresses, arguments, and letters the most characteristic and interesting or epigrammatic and pithy phrases or passages. The difficulty that we feel in looking over the volume is that General Garfield had not sufficient conciseness or epigrammatic point of expression to make such a selection of any particular value. Epigram is hardly possible without wit, and General Garfield was not a witty man. Moral and political ideas may of course be expressed with a sententious force which will take the place of wit, but General Garfield had not, properly speaking, a gift of sententious expression. Originality of thought may often supply the place of both these, but he does not seem to have had, to judge from the volume before us, much originality of mind. A great many of the extracts given were no doubt impressive when first delivered; but examined in print, and judged, as they necessarily must be, by literary standards, their impressiveness disappears. "God reigns, and the Government at Washington still lives," is almost the only expression used by him which can be properly said to have taken root in the popular heart. "I would rather be beaten in Right than succeed in Wrong" is merely a new form of an old idea; as is also: "There are some things I am afraid of, and I confess it in this great presence—I am afraid to do a mean thing"; and "It is cheaper to reduce crime than to build jails." Under the head of "Character" Mr. Balch gives a number of sayings which, taken together, show, what we should have known without them, that General Garfield placed a high value upon character; but there is nothing in them which indicates any originality of view, or delicacy of observation, or novelty of idea with regard to it. Many of the sayings are platitudes, which it was hardly worth while to reproduce, announced with a characteristic en-

thusiasm that, at the time of their utterance, may have saved them from seeming so. Most of the extracts relate to public life, political questions, or topics connected in some way with these. And here again, while the extracts possess a certain value from the evident conviction and elevation of aim which lay behind them, they express nothing which cannot be found elsewhere in other forms. General Garfield's merits as a lawyer, a politician, or an orator are not to be tested by any such ephemeral collection as this. His strength did not lie in isolated phrases or sayings, and his efforts in any direction have to be judged as a whole rather than in their parts. In this he resembles most successful public men.

It is perhaps yet too soon to attempt to form any final opinion as to the precise position which the late President will occupy in the history of American public life. The tragic end of his life brought his career, his character, and his private life into such a glare of publicity that his individuality at the end underwent a sort of metamorphosis in the minds of a large part of the general public. This glare now casts back a reflected light upon his earlier career, and makes it seem somewhat different from what it would have been had his Presidency terminated in a natural manner. The interest taken in his sufferings by foreign nations, and the discussion of his character and public services which this interest occasioned, gave to the feeling about him in his own country for the time being a somewhat new color. This was not so marked, perhaps, as it was twenty years before in the case of Lincoln, because with him European opinion in many cases passed from an extreme of something very like contempt to the opposite pole of obituary adulation. Lincoln the awkward, ungainly, backwoods rail-splitter, became Lincoln the martyr, the wise and far-seeing statesman. The causes which produced the revulsion of feeling in regard to him in Europe were so obviously connected with the success of the North in the Rebellion, that European admiration of him, when it at length came, did not produce a profound impression on this side of the Atlantic. It was accepted here as a tribute of respect which we had all fought for and won; and the bitterness of the struggle, while it gave a peculiar sweetness to the enjoyment of this as well as all its other results, left behind it in the national memory an irritation against foreign critics and observers which made us feel, for the time being, superior to the very criticism we most keenly cared for.

All this was entirely different in the case of General Garfield. In the satisfaction of having the President of the country suddenly become the object of the respectful sympathy of the press, the public, and the governments of Europe there was absolutely no alloy. It was felt to be spontaneous, and not offered as a salve for previous injuries. It seemed to give a new importance to its object, while at the same time it somewhat affected the atmosphere through which we regarded that object. General Garfield, as he appeared in English eyes, was necessarily different from the purely American Garfield as we knew him. To the English imagination he was a public man such as they know public men to be—an American Gladstone, or Bright, or Cobden—a sort of combination of British premier and Republican elective sovereign. This called for less imaginative effort in his case than would have been required with regard to most of our politicians, because General Garfield had won his way up to the Presidency by a parliamentary life, and his success was founded in great measure on readiness in debate and familiarity with public questions. To a certain extent, in our appreciation of the

foreign sympathy lavished upon us, we fell into this foreign view ourselves, and for the time being General Garfield acquired a sort of new Anglo-American individuality. The idea of making a collection of his "words" seems like a legacy from this period. But an American Congressional career is, after all, at bottom very different from an English Parliamentary career, and in nothing more different than the small scope the former gives to wit, epigram, or pointed rhetoric of any kind. It really stifles rather than encourages it; and if General Garfield's long public service had made him a successful producer of brilliant phrases or memorable sayings, he would have been almost a *lusus nature*.

SCANDINAVIAN TRAVEL.

The Land of the Midnight Sun. Summer and Winter Journeys through Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Northern Finland. By Paul B. Du Chaillu. With map and 235 illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. 2 vols. 8vo.

Norsk, Lapp, and Finn. By Frank Vincent, jr. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo.

The Story of a Scandinavian Summer. By Katharine E. Tyler. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo.

PAUL DU CHAILLU has produced a magnificent work, eclipsing all his predecessors who have written about the Scandinavian Peninsula. What first strikes one is the elegant appearance of the volumes, and the excellent map and engravings. The latter, 235 in number, are mostly (the portraits entirely) from photographs taken exclusively for use in this work. Those representing winter scenes in Lapland are the work of the Swedish artist, M. Bergman, who has visited that country. It would be difficult to show wherein the illustrations could be improved, and they alone are well worth the price of the book. While the majority of the works of this class have been written by persons who had no preparation for the task, who were utterly ignorant of the languages and dialects spoken in the north of Europe, and whose sojourn was too brief to repair this defect, M. Du Chaillu made a series of journeys at different times from 1871 to 1878, and spent nearly five years in the country. His work is therefore something more than a mere traveller's tale. He acquired a good speaking knowledge of the Scandinavian languages, and in this way was enabled to share the home-life of all classes, and observe accurately the manners and customs of the inhabitants. During this period he travelled, as he tells us, and as the narrative shows, "in an irregular course, by routes often crossing each other, and at different seasons of the year, either from the Baltic to the Polar Sea or from the east to the west." He observed "the whole coast from Haparanda to the extreme northeastern point of Norway, a distance of 3,300 miles, the greater part of it both in winter and summer"; and besides, he "sailed on almost every fjord, whose shores have in the aggregate an extent of 3,000 miles or more." His great merit lies in his fine descriptions of the scenery and physical characteristics of the country, and in his accurate and sympathetic account of the manners and customs of the peasantry. We think he is sometimes too lavish in his praise of these rude peoples, and that he might have found something to criticise, as Bayard Taylor did; but his pictures of their interiors, of their daily occupations, of their dances and weddings and other festive gatherings, and of their religious worship, are so true and lifelike that we can easily forgive him for not having the heart to find fault with a race to which he became fondly attached, and which he designates as "probably the most independent,

honest, and faithful of the European nationalities."

M. Du Chaillu professes to have paid special attention to the prehistoric and viking ages, but the archaeologist and historian need not therefore look to him for any new or important information. He gives a few chapters on Scandinavian geology, sketches the outlines of the stone, bronze, and iron ages, and undertakes to give an account of the runes; and while these chapters have more or less value for the general reader, they have scarcely any for the scholar or the scientist. The history of Scandinavia is alluded to in the vaguest manner, while the literary and artistic activities of its inhabitants are utterly overlooked. We might have expected some indication of the position of Norway and Sweden in the world of culture. The naturalist Sars is mentioned, but he is called "Tars." Peter Christian Asbjørnsen is very generously spoken of, but no appreciation is shown of his great service as the Grimm of Norway in rescuing the folk-lore from oblivion. But we will not quarrel with our author about this. It is sufficient for us to record the fact that literature, history, science, and art do not come within the scope of his work. Nor are we disposed to point out all his peccadilloes in the translation of Norse and Swedish phrases, in his remarks about the politics of the country, and in what he has written about the theatres and a dozen other minor matters. It takes more than five years to become a thorough Scandinavian scholar, and it is not to be expected that all M. Du Chaillu's comments and criticisms should stand the test of careful scrutiny. The work is a thorough, instructive, entertaining, and systematic description of the Scandinavian peasants and their physical environment, and as such we most heartily recommend it.

It would not be difficult to enumerate fifty English men and women who have recorded in elegantly printed and bound volumes their personal experiences in the valleys and on the fjords and lakes of Norway and Sweden, and given us, in more or less brilliant passages, their impressions of arctic scenery and the midnight sun; but, with two or three exceptions, their works are scarcely worthy of mention. Mr. Vincent pleads the want of a satisfactory American work on Scandinavia, and raises expectations in us that he is going to supply it. He says he has not forgotten Bayard Taylor's 'Northern Travel,' but remarks that "it was written a quarter of a century ago, and is therefore slightly antiquated." He forgets that we have had in the meantime Charles Loring Brace's 'Norway and Sweden,' J. Ross Browne's 'The Land of Thor,' G. W. Griffin's 'My Danish Days,' John Dean Catton's 'A Summer in Norway,' Samuel Kneeland's 'An American in Iceland,' Bayard Taylor's 'Iceland,' and E. L. Anderson's 'Six Weeks in Norway,' some of which will compare favorably with 'Norsk, Lapp, and Finn,' both in scope and accuracy. We by no means find the thorough "ethnographic, philological, and topographical" treatment of the North which Mr. Vincent sets out to give us, and it is evident he had not the necessary equipment for such a task. But his work has one important quality: it is graphic and very entertaining. Mr. Vincent is an experienced traveller and a close observer of men and things. We can heartily commend his chapters on the Lapps and on the Grand Duchy of Finland, in which he furnishes a good deal of information not easily accessible elsewhere. 'Norsk, Lapp, and Finn' will induce many to leave the beaten tracks of southern Europe, and spend their vacations amid the grotesque scenery of the fjords and valleys of the North.

We cannot say as much for Miss Tyler's

'Scandinavian Summer.' Throughout her 394 pages we find scarcely one interesting passage. She discourses everlastingly about breakfast, dinner, supper, and bed-time, without the power of forgetting herself for a moment, excepting when she fills in her narrative with tedious extracts from commonplace guide-books. Her descriptions of the fjords and mountain scenery, and of the celebrated fish-market in Bergen, are so tame that it is difficult to read them with patience. All she has to say of the midnight sun is: "I know nothing finer, unless a sunset on the Nile, with the afterglow; perhaps even that is less wonderful than the midnight sun under favorable circumstances. But personal comfort has a good deal to do," etc. She goes on to tell how she "made interest with the stewardess to procure her a bottle of hot water," etc.; and, as if conscious of her utter lack of the descriptive faculty, she quotes in a foot-note Bayard Taylor's incomparable page on the phenomenon in question. It is to be regretted that Miss Tyler undertook a task for which she had no fitness.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

If all the makers of boys' books on foreign countries were as conscientiously accurate in spirit and details as Mr. Edward Greey in his 'Young Americans in Japan,' published by Lee & Shepard, Boston, the adults of the next generation would be saved much vicious prejudice. Every one of the twenty chapters is headed with a pretty stanza translated from the Japanese, and all show the keen observation of a quick-eyed traveller mellowed by long study of the language. Mr. Greey, having studied the subtleties and technique of native art, has himself designed the cover, and added a few sketches among the one hundred and seventy-one pictures which will make the work a prize even in the nursery. Most of the illustrations are well-known veterans, that have already lived as many lives as a cat is supposed to worry through. Far better, however, than Aimé Humbert, who first drew most of them from native works, does the American author interpret them. The text is a pretty, lively, and amusing story of travel from Nagasaki, overland and by way of the Inland Sea, to Tokio. There, the hilarious comments of Johnnie and Fitz, the criticism of Mrs. Jewett and Fallie, and the sage and explanatory remarks of the professor on the objects seen in their travels, end. Fun without caricature, facts without dullness, abound in this most interesting book.

Mr. Alden's 'Cruise of the Ghost' (Harpers) is intended exclusively for the entertainment of youth, and must be judged from that standpoint. Hence, it is a most delightful, exciting, plausible, and intoxicating little book, and those lads who have a love of the water and of boats will regret that it is not continued in the same vein through an unlimited number of volumes. Looked at from the point of view of a more mature age, and acquaintance with the locale of the story, one is impressed with the fact that Mr. Alden has been inspired rather by the Government charts than by an actual personal knowledge of the navigation of the South Bays of Long Island. The ancient mariners who frequent Shinnecock Bay will be surprised to learn that one may drift, even in the densest fog, through the intermittent inlet which is at times opened through the beach hills, out to sea without being aware of the circumstance. The extraordinary skill with which a third-classman (second year) at Annapolis, at home on a vacation, handles a twenty-foot light-draft sailboat in a heavy northwest gale several miles off the Long Island coast, and his subsequent management of a water-logged brig, cannot fail to con-

vince the people of the United States that the money expended in the education of our naval cadets has not been spent in vain. There can be no doubt that Mr. Alden is a "sailor-man" by practical training.

We are glad to announce another volume of Mr. Towle's "Heroes of History"—'Raleigh, his Exploits and Voyages' (Lee & Shepard). Raleigh's life has been many times told, but it has a charm that will always make it worth telling over again, and we doubt whether any life of him is more attractive to the young than the one before us. It was worth while to tell the "apocryphal" stories (as Mr. Edwards pronounces them) of the cloak and the ring, as they are stories that everybody ought to know; but at the same time the reader ought to be informed that they are apocryphal, or at least are so considered. We shall always quarrel with the illustrations in books of this class until the book-makers understand that the pictures form a part of the history, as well as the text. Portraits of the hero and other personages; views of actual places; pictures of real objects; contemporary representations of interesting events; nay, even maps of the regions described, or plans of cities and battle-fields—will not such illustrations as these be as entertaining to our boys and girls as the made-up pictures which we find in this class of books? We do not believe in cramming children with information, but the accuracy of knowledge and the insight acquired by constant familiarity with historical realities cannot be valued too highly.

Miss Sarah Brook's 'French History for English Children' (Macmillan) can hardly be called a "juvenile," as it is, in its style and the treatment of its subject, adapted to the age, say, of fifteen and upward. For these it is very well fitted—decidedly attractive for young readers, and failing, we think, principally in the matter of emphasis. All readers, and particularly children, need to have their attention fastened on what is essential—the great men, the great events, the great ideas—and let the rest go. In this the book before us is deficient. There are also some slips—as where the Duke of Anjou is spoken of in the twelfth century, and the Count of Lafayette (p. 392). On page 59 we find the exaggerated statement that, in the time of Charles the Great, the laborers on an estate "were always slaves." There are nine excellent maps, forming the best small historical atlas of France with which we are acquainted; but we think the first map (of Gaul) should have given the Gaul of the fourth century rather than that of Cæsar's time—or both could have been given on the same map.

Children receive pleasure from the mere jingle of simple verses and the recurrence of simple rhythms, without much regard to the sense conveyed by them. A collection of songs for children, therefore, to be appreciated, calls less for melodic inventiveness or harmonic depth on the part of the author than for skill in securing sufficient rhythmic variety to avoid monotony. From this point of view 'The Little Folks' Album of Music,' with music by J. W. Elliott, J. M. Bentley, and other composers (Cassell, Pelter, Galpin & Co.), can be commended. The book is nicely bound, the songs are clearly printed on good paper, and there is an appropriate picture for every song—domestic scenes, pictures of animals and flowers, comic pictures, etc. Mothers or nurses who can play a simple accompaniment on the piano can easily teach the little ones to sing the melodies, and will thus find this collection a good means of getting them interested in music, and discovering whether it will be worth while subsequently to put any one of them through a regular course of vocal or instrumental music. It may perhaps be questioned if children will see the point of the

play on words in the first and second songs, but there is certainly no harm in it.

The 'Five Little Peppers' (D. Lothrop & Co.) were poor children—so poor that even butter for their brown bread was almost an unheard-of dainty, but so brave and helpful withal that we are sorry that the author, Margaret Sydney, did not show us how they would have bettered themselves by their own steady effort. On the contrary, she provides them with sudden friends, rich and benevolent enough to smooth all their way for them. The prettiest thing in the book is the planning of the brother and sister to make out a Christmas tree from their own scanty resources. It would have been far finer as a bit of artistic work, as well as more useful morally, to carry it out to the end, and to show the beauty of taking pleasure in little things, than to bring in the other people and heap upon the children the old hackneyed balls, dolls, and hoops. The author, also for the sake of a sensational page, "gives away" the motives of her good geni who have done everything for the children out of admiration for their courage and perseverance. The Peppers are discovered to be near connections, to whom not much less was due in common humanity. If ever the nondescript English which Mrs. Pepper uses was heard in real life, it certainly was not in the old New England villages, or from the old New England stock from which she came.

'Under the Dog-Star' (Porter & Coates) and 'Hazel-Nut and her Brothers' (Cassell), are two books of the kind upon which are lavished every variety and luxury of wood-engraving. Too seldom is the story at all equal to the beauty of its dress, but in these two the pen fairly rivals the pencil. "Jock" writes his autobiography, which we are by turns ready to pronounce most canine or most human, to prove the falsity of the common sayings about "a dog's life" and "a cat-and-dog life." He inserts the stories to which he from time to time listens with his playmates the children. One of them, "The Onion that Sprouted," is quite a marvel of the storyteller's art, in its unaffected simplicity and its faint touch of pathos. Its moral is exactly the one which the history of "the Peppers" failed to teach—that keen, sweet pleasure may be found in the love and care of little things. "Hazel-Nut" is a little maid who comes to a household where there are already so many brothers that one of them insists, in his delight, "How can she be a real sister? We never have girls in our family." The devotion of the boys to her, with its softening, steady effect upon them, is the thread, not too plainly apparent, by which are linked together the many pleasant adventures in the life of four stirring, frolicking, but high-minded boys in Cambridge and New York. It is all very entertaining for the elders as well, from the novel undertaking of "A Great Fair of Cats" to the fate of the "poor, foolish, brave yellow dog, Rufus."

Adjectives which should duly describe 'Bessy Bradford's Secret' (Cassell) might be thought over-strong, so we prefer to repeat the author's own description of the characters in the story: "The extreme selfishness of Pete"; Charlie, "idle, heedless, reckless, mischievous"; Harold's "hot temper"; Fanny, "always borrowing trouble"; Robbie, "an unmitigated little prig"; Maud, "a Paul Pry in petticoats." The deeds or misdeeds of these children during a short summer holiday make up what the author calls "a tale of persistent meanness." Why is it not better to teach by the example of goodness and not by the warning of evil? It only remains to be said that the pictures, though pretty enough in themselves, are often a surprising misfit to the events they are supposed to illustrate.

'A Story of Four Acorns' (D. Lothrop & Co.)

is a graceful little fantasy by Alice B. Engle, in which the sights and sounds of the forest are inwoven with fitting verses and stories into the long dream of a child. Its effect can hardly be that of reality, but it will be a delightful winter reminder of summer haunts for children who already care for the woods, and it ought to help to awaken in others that love of nature which so often proves an invaluable zest and solace in mature years.

The 'Robinson Crusoe,' published in London by Bickers & Son (New York: Scribner & Welford), is a single volume, of clear print, of less than 400 pages. It is of course condensed, particularly in the part succeeding Crusoe's island experience. Several motives justify this proceeding where young readers are in view; but the lesson in toleration furnished by the episode of the Catholic priest, on the return to the colony, is marred by an omission like the following (p. 335):

"It is true, this man was a Roman; [and perhaps it may give offence to some hereafter if I leave anything extraordinary upon record of a man whom, before I begin, I must (to set him out in just colors) represent in terms very much to his disadvantage, in the account of Protestants; as first, that he was a Papist; secondly, a Popish priest; and thirdly, a French Popish priest]; but justice demands of me to give him a due character," etc.

The particular feature of this edition, however, is the illustrations, which are Stothard's, and here the budding bibliophile may amuse himself with a little comparison. Stothard's engraver in Stockdale's self-styled "splendid edition" (though it is full of typographical errors) of 1790 was Medland, and it must be admitted that he was more skilful than the artist whose handiwork, copied by the autotype process, is before us. The differences in rendering are instructive. Moreover, some plates are to be found in one edition which do not occur in the other; one is reversed, and so on.

Illusions: A Psychological Study. By James Sully. [International Scientific Series]. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

EXCEPT the structure and functions of the brain, the subject of illusions is probably the most confused and confusing in the whole range of modern psychology. On the one hand, it is admitted that our sensations and perceptions are only symbols of the objects they represent, and that our best chosen words have still less in common with the thought they would express. Berkeley proved that we were mistaken in thinking that we could know matter, and Hume showed that true knowledge of cause or even of our own mind was illusory. On the other hand, it is asserted that the general consensus of mankind is sufficiently accurate to guide conduct, and that it is an illusion to expect more. While the whole field of mental science is thus open to any one who would treat this subject, he is compelled to base that treatment upon some quite definite theory of mind in general. The merit of such a work must therefore be sought less in its details than in its method and scope, and in these essential respects Mr. Sully has made a valuable and original contribution to psychology.

In his work on *Intelligence*, M. Taine assumed that all the material of which our knowledge is made is illusions, and that, as the latter mutually limit and correct each other, the former becomes accurate and valuable. Mr. Sully, however, asserts that the mind is always surrounded by a penumbra of illusions, and that only a little fatigue, excitement, or inattention is sufficient to break through the mental solidarity or consensus and admit some one of them to domineer over even the senses. They may not only simulate the immediate knowledge of percep-

tion; and assume all the varied forms of dreahts; but introspection, insight, memory, and belief are all subject to illusions. Concerning illusion of the senses and dreams the author has only collected facts from a wide reading, and grouped them around a theory of normal perception which does not differ in any essential respect from that of Spencer and Wundt. In the chapter on introspective illusion, or the errors involved in the apprehension of the content of our own minds at a given moment, it is admirably shown how we not only constantly mistake external for internal states and feelings, and are apt to find almost anything that we seek in our subjective experience, but that with respect to our real motives, our dormant aspirations, and our highest emotional experience we are greatly liable to deceive ourselves. We constantly exaggerate the intensity and persistence of present but evanescent states, and mistake the wish to feel in a particular way for the feeling itself. From the inability to analyze the "deliverances of consciousness" the introspective philosopher asserts the simplicity of the idea of beauty, or of the soul itself, or declares that the utterances of conscience are immediate, and that the will may be intuited as free, or as a power of spontaneous determination of action superior to and regulative of the influence of motives. The mind tends to mix up facts of present consciousness with inferences from them, and to invest itself with the supreme power of absolute origination. Indeed, this is essentially the standpoint of the old rational psychology still in use in many of our colleges. The early atomists thought of the discontinuity of matter as granulation, which even the naked eye could sometimes perceive as particles. The microscope, and still further chemistry, reduced the limits of these ultimate elements, revealing great complexity where simplicity had been assumed. So, too, what had long been assumed as ultimate and simple psychic elements are resolved by better methods. Space, *e. g.*, is analyzed into a system of local signs, between the nearest of which, as distinguishable under the compasses, there may be many really different sensations which we cannot distinguish. Thus, in a word, nothing is simple or immediate in the mind, as the introspective method (which has, after all, a certain justification and is only in process of being fashioned) assumed.

The fundamental illusion of memory is wrong localization in time. Not only is a very small interval of time magnified and a larger one always reduced, but a year seems in retrospect much shorter relatively than a week. We exaggerate the impressions of early life, because we project our present moods into the past, because youth is most impressive, because only very few early impressions really survive, and because harsher features are softened and pleasant ones transformed and idealized by the very progress of our experiences and emotional life. We remember what was novel or strange, and then unconsciously transform it by reasoning from later standards of novelty, so that the past, so far as it is restorable as it was, is hardly recognizable. In short, says Mr. Sully, memory resembles an old manuscript exposed to dampness; it is here blotted and discolored with foreign material, and the letters run together; there eaten entirely away, or glued, leaf to leaf, and with other portions even transposed or dislocated, and which must be rather interpreted than read. Even dreams often get woven inextricably into the memory-continuum. The feeling of familiarity in new experiences is another of the spectra of memory, and may be explained as resonances from a vast and mysterious past of inherited ancestral experience, analogous to the

Platonic reminiscence. Such errors in filling up our past life make our personal identity less a simple idea than an imaginative conjecture, for they involve at least an illusory sense of continuity. As, however, identity depends in part upon constancy of consciousness, or the mass of organic sensations, any great moral or physical change will confuse it, as in several incipient forms of insanity, where the patient regards the new somatic feelings which attend his disease as a foreign power or personality, or conceives his present as detached from his former self.

Not to dwell longer upon its forms, it is plain that the very notion of illusion implies some standard of certainty, or else universal doubt, even of perception, follows. Science can never answer, with all its relative tests, the final form of the question how far illusions extend; but rather it, like all thinking, must at last take its stand on a stable consensus, as a body of commonly accepted belief, from which skepticism and every individuality of opinion differ, when examined psychologically, far less than is commonly thought. We only wish the author had given more attention to the pathological and the philosophical departments of his theme, or at least had not lost sight of the fact that this consensus is always practical at bottom, so that it is natural selection which secures us chiefly against illusions by eliminating them with their consequences. We should not forget that many so-called illusions are inseparably connected with conduct which has been most accurately adapted to the environment, and that this accounts for their persistence in the face of the most conclusive scientific refutation.

Washington Irving. By Charles Dudley Warner. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

WE are not sure whether we are announcing a truism or a paradox when we say that, as a rule, biographies of literary men are better unwritten than written. Despite the passionate desire of modern times to get some insight into the exterior life of the man Shakspeare, we have a strong conviction that the world is really better off without it. For the true life of the man of letters is in his books; and that other life which is merely, as the evolutionists tell us, his struggle with his environment, if it does not, as is too often the case, unpleasantly jar on our feelings, or damage the ideal we had formed, is apt to be dull, material, and commonplace.

In a slight degree the latter is the case with the biography of Irving. His life was bright and happy; no eager interests, no passionate purposes, ruffled its calm expanse. He won, with ease, honor, friends, wide fame, and universal goodwill; nothing that we can learn about him but increases the affection in which we hold his memory; yet the narrative of his life leaves us hardly more than the impression of a pleasant day in June—calm, sunny, marked by no event beyond the moving of the shadows. This easy uneventfulness of life may have been the cause of two notable facts in Irving's literary career. One is, that his external life seems to have had no effect on his work beyond giving him (as in 'Bracebridge Hall' and 'The Alhambra') variety of background for his figures; and the other is, that his work shows no improvement with advancing age, but rather the reverse; his 'Knickerbocker,' written pretty much "as the linnet sings," being distinctly better—not merely more spontaneous and attractive, but more artistic—than the more careful work of his later years.

A biographer, under these disadvantages, has two resources: he may adroitly turn to the work to illustrate the man, and thus beguile the reader into a pleasant literary ramble while the subject

waits; or he may enliven the uneventfulness of the narrative by personal anecdote. Both these resources Mr. Warner has tried; nor can we blame him for giving us twenty-five or thirty pages of 'Knickerbocker's History,' which we read, for the hundredth time, more satisfactorily from his clear type than from the battered copy on our book-table, and with hardly less enjoyment than when that copy was new, and its owner had never seen Sterne nor heard of Rabelais. It so happens that the last biography of Irving noticed in these pages was the first of a series which, if our memory serves us, came to an untimely end. We heartily trust that the series of which this handsome and very readable little book is the first instalment may have better luck.

Aryo-Semitic Speech: a Study in Linguistic Archaeology. By J. F. McCurdy. Andover: Warren F. Draper. 1881. 8vo, pp. xi-176.

WE have in this volume one more attempt to prove the original connection of our own family of languages and that of which the Hebrew and Arabic are leading members. If its author had made himself creditably known to scholars by sound and important contributions to philology, no one would have the right to grudge him such amusement as he might find in discussing the subject presented in it. So far, however, as we are aware, this is his first and only publication, and must be taken to represent his productive leisure and force during the years while it has been coming out in instalments in a journal more noted for theological soundness than for philological profundity. That being the case, the undertaking was a thoroughly ill-advised one; and it is much to be regretted that the author had not experienced friends to dissuade him from it, and direct his attention to more profitable subjects. Nobody in the world, probably, whose critical opinion is worth having, will care to know what a novice opines about the ultimate unity of Semitic and Japhetic speech, or with what ingenious and captivating analogies that unity may be sustained by one whose name is attached to no investigations in any accessible and legitimate field of inquiry. It is much as if an intending chemist were to commence his public career with speculations on the relations and possible identities of the simple elements. As Professor McCurdy himself points out, the prevalent opinion of scholars is that the question he attempts to solve has never been competently discussed; and not only that, but it cannot be competently discussed at the present time, when the comparative grammar of Japhetic speech is undergoing a revolution, and a comparative grammar of Semitic has never been produced. There has, indeed, been a regular progress in the best opinion on the subject, from certainty through doubt to denial. Fifty years ago learned and unlearned alike held, with hardly a thought of question, that all our languages were only corrupted descendants of Hebrew; then, as the latter was gradually remanded to its proper place as one, and by no means the most primitive, of a little group of dialects of extremely peculiar character, the asserted derivation dwindled to a persuasion of ultimate kindred between the tongues of the two leading historical white races—a persuasion to be substantiated by such indications as could be pressed into service without too careful examination; and now the nearly universal opinion is that the question is no scientific one, at least in the present stage of glossological science. We may not be justified in asserting that it will never be legitimately solved—the future may be left to settle that; what is certain is, that no solution yet made, down to the one before us, has any substantial value, or will stand longer than till some one shall take the trouble to demolish it.

Neither in its subject nor in its method, in its grasp of philological principles nor its critical estimate of authorities, is Professor McCurdy's work entitled to favorable attention.

The Lake Regions of Central Africa. A Record of Modern Discovery. By John Geddies. With thirty-two illustrations. 12mo, pp. 275. London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1881.

MR. GEDDIES has divided his narrative of the discoveries made within the past thirty years in Central Africa into three parts, devoted respectively to the rivers Nile, Congo, and Zambesi. As is natural, the greater portion of the book is devoted to the travels of Livingstone and Stanley, though "honorable mention" is made of Baker, Grant, Speke, Burton, and Cameron. No single journey is given in detail, with the exception of Stanley's descent of the Congo, and as the author apparently lacks the power of making clear geographical statements, the result at times is somewhat confusing. We doubt whether an uninformed reader, for instance, could form from this work any accurate conception of the present condition of the question of the Nile sources, or of the relative position of the great lakes and their watersheds. Nor would he be much helped by the wretched map which the publishers have seen fit to insert. Mr. Geddies's constant efforts to be humorous are at once fatiguing and unsuccessful. Occasionally he is decidedly coarse, especially when he is referring to cannibalism. Of the general accuracy of his statements, so far as our present knowledge goes, we have seen no reason to doubt, and we can accordingly commend the book as a popular and readable account of one of the most fascinating, if not the most important, chapters in the history of geographical research. We regret, however, to say that its value is lessened by the want of an index.

Reports on the Estate of Sir Andrew Chadwick and the Recent Proceedings of the Chadwick Association in reference thereto. By Edmund Chadwick, Chairman, and James Boardman, Secretary and Treasurer of the Chadwick Association. To which is prefixed the Life and History of Sir Andrew Chadwick, etc., by John Oldfield Chadwick. London and New York: Charles L. Woodward. 1881. Pp. 300.

SIR ANDREW CHADWICK, knighted by Queen Anne in 1710, in 1713 one of the Band of Gentlemen Pensioners, married Margaret Humphreys in 1718, and died in 1768. Nothing seems to have been found out concerning his method of acquiring a moderate fortune, and no reason can be given for this preposterous book except the fact that various Chadwicks thought themselves his heirs. It seems quite certain that Sir Andrew was son of Ellis Chadwick, of Carter Place, in Lancashire, grandson of Robert, and great-grandson of Ellis C., of Wolstenholme. Soon after Sir Andrew's death, Sarah Law, a first cousin, claimed and obtained much of his property; but certain leaseholds were in trusts, the leases ending in 1847. In 1842 a John Chadwick presented a claim as descended from James, oldest uncle of Sir Andrew, and obtained a part. The claimants since have been numerous, and apparently every presumed line of Chadwicks, traced to an uncle of Sir Andrew, is tainted with illegitimacy, or at best its legitimacy is lacking in the necessary proofs.

There is not the slightest reason for any one but a reviewer or a Chadwick to wade through this volume. There is no interest connected with the worthy knight or his fortune beyond what may surround any person of moderate means who flourished in the past century. His

money was distributed and spent long ago, and but for the fact of certain long leases which ran out so recently, there would have been nothing to make a stir about. But as one Chadwick, in humble life, did so lately obtain a small amount, of course his innumerable cousins and namesakes have tried for their share. The report treats of these matters in detail, but with a solemnity utterly out of place, when we reflect that the writers had arrived at the painful conclusion that there was nothing left undivided for even the truest heir to obtain. One of the writers sneers at certain American Chadwicks who not only claimed the property but refused to join the Englishmen in this search. But really an American claim-report is usually a credit to our national love of humor. Our pretensions to English estates are broad and noble; they are not fettered by probabilities, and they are as brilliant as soap-bubbles. These Chadwicks have painfully hunted out the records of the property which Sir Andrew really owned, and have found out who obtained the wealth by due process of law. Then they dolefully conclude that, though robbers inherited, it is too late to dispute the division. A true American would never waste time in looking for actual houses or lands; but a rumor of a square league in Lancashire, or a dozen parishes in London, or a million pounds in Chancery, would suffice for him to found an association. The contrast of the two styles can now be well made; and as an exhibition of credulity and misplaced energy, this Chadwick book will probably find its appropriate place in the back shelf of every large library.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, J. H. A Short Course of Quantitative Chemical Analysis. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.
Austin, C. Recollections of Aunt House: a Book for Children. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 25.
Baldwin, W. J. Steam-Heating for Buildings. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Baumbach, K. Staats-Lexikon. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Bell, A. M. Sounds and their Relations. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.
Bersier, E. St. Paul's Vision, and Other Sermons. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1 50.
Boulhais, H. P. Dirty Dustbins and Sloppy Streets. New York: E. & A. F. Spohn.
Brosien, H. Lexikon der Deutschen Geschichte. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Bunyan, J. The Pilgrim's Progress. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$3 50. Also, Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$3.
Burns, R. The Cotter's Saturday Night. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. \$1 50.
Butterworth, H. Young Folks' History of the United States. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$1 50.
Chase, F. E. Ballads in Black. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.
Clarke, J. E. Chatterbox. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$1 75.
Clarke, J. F. Events and Epochs in Religious History. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$3.
Cornelius, J. W. Sabbath Home Readings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 50.
Defoe, D. The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, with Stothard's Illustrations. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Dobson, W. T. Royal Characters from the Works of Sir Walter Scott. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Dühring, E. Sache, Leben und Feinde. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Dulcken, H. W. Worthies of the World. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3 50.
Ecce Spiritus. Boston: George H. Ellis. \$1 25.
Edwards, E. Words, Facts, and Phrases. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$2 50.
Fraser, D. Thomas Chalmers. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 75 cents.
French, H. W. Nana, the Bramin Girl. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1 25.
Grosel, T. Marco Visconti. London: George Bell & Sons.
Hardy, T. A Laodicean. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1. Also, Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Hauff, W. Tales of the Caravan, Inn, and Palace. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. \$1 25.
How is Your Man? Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.
Howells, W. D. Dr. Breen's Practice. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$1 50.
Jung, K. E. Lexikon der Handelsgeographie. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Kirkman, M. M. The Baggage, Parcel, and Mail Traffic of Railroads. Chicago: Railway Age Pub. Co.

Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in the Far East. Part III. Adventures in Ceylon and India. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros.
Litchford, H. The Wit and Wisdom of Parliament. New York: Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Lawson, J. D. The Law of Usages and Customs, with Illustrative Cases. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co.
Like a Gentleman. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.
Lommel, E. Lexikon der Physik und Meteorologie. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Lossing, B. J. Harper's Cyclopaedia of United States History. 2 vols. New York: Harper & Bros.
Mackenzie, R. America: a History. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. \$1 25.
McCarthy, J. The Comet of a Season: a Novel. New York: Harper & Bros.
Miller, Janet. Kinfolk. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. 75 cents.
Mitchell, J. A. The Summer School of Philosophy at Mount Desert. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$3 50.
Morselli, Dr. H. Suicide: An Essay on Comparative Moral Statistics. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$1 75.
Müller, H. A. Biographisches Künstler-Lexikon. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Needell, Mrs. John H. Julian Karslake's Secret: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 25.
Oberholtzer, Mrs. S. L. Come for Artibus, and Other Wild Bloom. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 25.
Odgers, W. B. A Digest of the Law of Libel and Slander. American edition, by M. M. Bigelow. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Palmer, L. Jeannette's Cisterns. Troy: H. B. Nims & Co. \$1 25.
Poe, E. A. The Bells. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. \$1 50.
Sayings and Doings of Little Lou. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1 50.
Schouler, J. History of the United States Under the Constitution. Vol. I. 1783-1801. Washington: W. H. & O. H. Morrison.
Shillaber, B. P. The Double Runner Club. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1 25.
Smith, G. B. Life and Speeches of John Bright, M.P. Two volumes in one. With portraits. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$2 50.
Spofford, Harriet P. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 25.
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Von Hillern, W. Higher than the Church. New York: W. S. Gottsberger.
Waddington, S. English Sonnets by Poets of the Past. London: George Bell & Sons.
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